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THE

CHINESE REPOSITORY.

VOL. VI. — OCTOBER, 1837. — No. 6.

ART. I. *Sketch of Spanish Colonial History in Eastern Asia: the expeditions of Gomez, Loaisa, Saavedra, Villalobos, and Legaspi.* A. D. 1524 to 1572.

THE safe return of one ship from the fleet of Magellan, her valuable cargo, and the accounts submitted by her commander, Cano, gave a new impulse to the zeal and enterprise of Charles V., and he immediately commanded a second expedition to the Moluccas. Among the strenuous advisers of these renewed attempts, we are surprised to find Talero, the early friend and after rival of Magellan. This unexpected resuscitation is, however, authorised by our authorities, who correct themselves as to his reported death, and represent him as applying for royal leave to send out two ships at his own cost and promising to pay, for such license, one third of the profits of the expedition. It does not appear, however, that his propositions were favorably received, probably because certain inconvenient rights might be revived in the person of the partner of Magellan. While the well founded pretensions of Talero were thus evaded, our notions of political justice are further shocked by finding a royal license granted to Gomez, the runaway pilot of the San Antonio, who thereon fitted out a ship for a voyage to the Moluccas. The cost of this equipment seems to have been borne chiefly by the lordship of Biscay. Gomez set sail in 1524, but meeting with boisterous weather, he soon returned, and his expedition thus resulted in a total failure.

Reserving for a future page, a notice of the controversy which arose between the Spanish and Portuguese monarchs, as to their respective rights to the Moluccas, we proceed to trace the course of the fleet of Loaisa, the second attempt to reap the fruits of the discoveries of Magellan. This fleet consisted of six ships and a tender, and in fitting it out, the pretensions of Seville were set aside, in favor of Coruna. It was well supplied with arms, and the more peaceful ammunition requisite for commercial exchanges, and placed under the

command of Garcia Jofre de Loaisa, as captain-general, seconded by Sebastian de Cano. Ample instructions as to dealing with the native tribes and with the Portuguese, were prepared, the oath of homage taken, the royal pennon blessed; and thus thoroughly furnished, Loaisa sailed from Coruna in July 1524, and on the 2d August, anchored in Gomera. Pursuing the voyage hence, the coast of Brasil was made in safety, but one of the six ships was lost, in a harbor in 37° south latitude during the night of the 14th of January.

The remaining vessels pursued their course, encountering frequent gales and often seeking shelter in the Patagonian harbors. One of these, like the quiet haven which received the ships of Æneas, was so secure, that the resting bark needed not the anchor.

* * * * hîc fessas non vincula naves
Ulla tenent, unco non alligat anchora morsu.

Clearing the Straits of Magellan, the 25th May, a storm separated the squadron, and the little tender, almost without provisions, bore away for New Spain, then just known as the splendid prize of the adventurous Cortez. The flag-ship pursued her way across the Pacific, but before half the long and painful passage was accomplished, Loaisa expired, and his successor Cano, the survivor of all the disasters of Magellan's expedition, was consigned, four days after, to a last resting place beneath the waters of the Pacific. The command of the fleet now devolved on Toribio Alonzo de Salazar, and on the 13th September, the first of the Ladrone islands was descried in 14° north latitude, and called San Bartolome. On approaching a second island, of the same group, the ship was hailed in Spanish, by a deserter from the fleet of Magellan. His native companions brought supplies of cocos, plantains, rice, fish, &c., but were ill requited for their confiding attentions, eleven of them being entrapped and carried away to work the pumps of the leaking vessel. The death of Salazar again deprived the expedition of a head, and an election followed, which conferred the command on Martin Iniguez de Carquizano.

On the 2d October, Mindanao was descried, but it was with difficulty that refreshments could be obtained from the shore, the natives mistaking the strangers for a new detachment of hated Portuguese. A better reception was met with at Talao, half way between Mindanao and Ternate, but when the native chief besought, in return, that the strangers would fight his battles for him, Iniguez refused and sailed for Gilolo. Early in November, a friendly port in this island was entered, and here the party first learned the fate of 'la Trinidad,' and the companions of Espinosa. It was also told them, that the Portuguese had revenged on the rájá Almansor, his kind reception of the Spanish fleet, and that for the same reason, they had recently burned the principal town of Tidore, and driven the chief to the mountains. The Spanish writers say, that the recollection of this earlier visit and the hatred of the Portuguese, made the fleet of Iniguez most welcome at Gilolo, and that their arrival was celebrated by the natives, all around, with illuminations and dances.

A different reception was given to the new comers by the Portuguese colonists of Ternate, then commanded by F. de Castro, a name of much note, in the colonial history of that nation, at this period. De Castro denied the right of the Spaniards to interfere in the commerce of the Moluccas, and required them to be gone, but the rough and loyal Iniguez refused submission, and declared that he would answer all such demands, 'without ink or paper.' Repelling some slight attacks of the Portuguese, he anchored before the destroyed capital of Tidore, where the young chief of the island came to wait on him, supported by the rájá of Gilolo an old man of eighty years. This alliance brought on an open war with the Portuguese, in the course of which, one of their vessels, with 250 quintals of cloves, was captured.

Several battles, negotiations, and ill-kept armistices, fill up the interval, to the death of Iniguez, who fell a victim, not long after, to poison administered by a Portuguese. On his death Hernando de la Torre was chosen as the fourth successor of Loaisa, and the new commander, aided by the práhus of Tidore and Gilolo, exerted himself in making head against the Portuguese and their ally the chief of Ternate.

We leave De la Torre for a while, in this unhappy position, to follow the tender of Loaisa's squadron, which, it will be remembered, sought a refuge from famine, in some port of New Spain, seven years before an independent empire, but now reduced to a Spanish colony. Before her arrival, it is said that the genius of Cortez, or perhaps the promptings of his superiors in Spain, had suggested to him that the western ports of his new conquests were the most favorable points, from which to carry on the spice trade. On the arrival of the tender he immediately gave orders for an expedition in aid of Loaisa, and the little vessel being no longer seaworthy, three new ships were equipped, well armed and manned, and furnished with an assortment of merchandise and some Mexican silver. This fleet sailed from Cevatlanejo on all-saints' day, A. D. 1528, under the command of Alvaro de Saavedra. Passing in sight of several of the Ladorne or Marianne islands, Saavedra made the coast of Mindanao, and at a port in the vicinity he cemented his friendly intercourse with a petty rájá, by performing the usual Dayak ceremony. Here he was informed that eight of his countrymen, refugees from the fleet of Magellan, had been sold as slaves to the Chinese; and two others, presenting themselves with a similar story of their manner of arrival in the island, he ransomed for sixty dollars. Standing on toward the Moluccas, Saavedra repulsed a Portuguese squadron which attempted to oppose his progress, and reached Tidore in safety, where he found a cordial welcome from De la Torre. After a stay of two months, he sailed again on his return to New Spain, with sixty quintals of cloves, then quite a valuable cargo, but now worth about $1500.

A discovery was then made which threw an unhappy light on the fate of the Santa Maria d 'el Parral, one of the missing ships of Loaisa's squadron. The Spaniards ransomed by Saavedra proved to be two of the mutineers of her crew, which after putting their officers to

death, had carried the vessel to the island of Sangin, where the greater part of them fell by the hands of the natives, and the survivors were sold into slavery. The wretches who made this disclosure were drawn and quartered.

While this retribution was inflicted at Tidore, Saavedra pursued his course and touched at a large island which he named 'Isla de Oro,' peopled by a black race, with curly hair, naked and armed with swords, &c. This discovery is said to have been in 7° north latitude, and cannot therefore be identified with the 'Gold Island' which figured on the charts of the Pacific to the southeast of Japan, down even to the time of Krusenstern. After carrying his vessel seven degrees farther to the north, and finding the northeast winds too strong to be resisted, Saavedra put back to the Moluccas.* After a short respite, he again attempted this, till then unaccomplished passage, and reached the 20th degree of north latitude; but falling sick, he was compelled to resign the command of the fleet and expired soon after. His successor, in compliance with his directions, pressed on, intending to reach the 30th parallel, and, if the easterly winds should be found to prevail far north, to put back to the Moluccas. Eight days after the death of Saavedra, his successor Pedro Laso followed him; and the remaining crew, 18 in number, baffled in all their efforts to get to the northeast, returned to Tidore, where a part entered the service of De la Torre, and the rest, seeking a passage home by way of India, were apprehended, and kept two years in prison, by the Portuguese governor of Malacca.

Thus ended the expedition planned by Cortez and executed by Saavedra. Our authorities leave us in the dark as to the fate of the remaining vessels of Saavedra's fleet, but we infer that they were retained by De la Torre, and no doubt were soon ruined by the worms so destructive to ships in these latitudes. No clue is given as to the fate of the three missing vessels of Loaisa's fleet, whether they were lost in the passage across the Pacific or rejoined the admiral at Tidore.

The return of Saavedra's ship to the Moluccas deprived De la Torre of the hope of early succors from New Spain, but he still maintained the contest with the Portuguese, and a series of petty conflicts ensued. The brunt of the war seems, however, to have fallen on the native allies of both parties; and in its progress, their towns were burned, their cultivation wasted, and themselves plundered, murdered, or reduced to slavery. At length an occasion presented, which was eagerly seized by the Portuguese, and De la Torre was surrounded in the fort of Tidore, when the greater part of his force was absent, and compelled to a capitulation. The absent partisans refused to accede to the stipulations, and De la Torre himself, distrusting the good faith

* We may as well confess, once for all, that our authorities are very brief and obscure, on the subject of courses, positions and names of places, and that we do not attempt, for fear of making this a geograpical disquisition, to collate the information derivable from other sources, or discuss all the points which may not satisfy the reader.

of his conquerors, broke his engagements and the war was thus renewed. The Portuguese now spread the report that the king of Spain had sold to them his right to the Moluccas, and it is added, that when this announcement came to the ears of the native chiefs, it aroused them to a determined resistance and even to plans for the extermination of the foreigners, who would thus treat them as slaves in buying and selling them. Their threats coming to the knowledge of the Portuguese commander, he seized several of the influential chiefs and put them to death. A general rising is said to have followed this cruel act, and De la Torre, regarding the animosity of the natives as directed indiscrimately towards both nations, joined the Portuguese in provisions for the common defence and safety. It was now the beginning of 1530, and the Spanish party were still without advices or succor from any quarter. Menezes, the Portuguese governor was then succeeded by Gonsalo Pereira, an old man, but who exposing himself unguardedly to the natives, soon fell a sacrifice to their fury. With his successor Fonseca De la Torre, discouraged by his long disappointments, treated for the return of his party, in the Portuguese ships to Lisbon. A tedious reference of this treaty to the governor-general of India, was then made, and his answer being favorable, the remnant of the Spanish force left these lands in 1535; and arriving in Spain while Charles V. was absent on his expedition against Tunis, they found a kind reception from the council of the Indies.

We must here advert briefly to the negotiations which had been in train during the first five years of their long and dreary absence, and which had terminated long before their return, in the practical renunciation of the Spanish right to the trade of the Moluccas. It has been already mentioned that the first outfit of Loaisa's fleet called forth a remonstrance from king John of Portugal. The Spanish sovereign replied, that he should certainly adhere to the demarcation established between the discoveries of the two crowns, by papal authority, and that he proposed to send two vessels, one east and the other west, to ascertain its true position. King John rejoined by sending an ambassador, and this measure effecting nothing, the disputed point was referred to the royal councils, each of which, very naturally, sided with its master. Arbitrators were then appointed who met on the frontiers of Spain and Portugal, and here the question was taken up and mooted, cosmographically, politically, and all ways save disinterestedly. The Spanish writers say that the claims of their king were substantiated by the demarcation and by the voluntary submission of the native chiefs, so that no ground was left to the Portuguese, but that of prior, but unlawful, possession. But before a compromise could be arrived at, the commissions of the negotiators expired, and it was agreed that the question at issue should be remitted to the royal principals, between whom there existed ties of blood and friendship, whose force might facilitate its amicable decision. Unhappily for the Spanish cause, the treasury of Charles V. was sadly exhausted, and the monarch was much pressed at this moment to meet the charges of his coronation day, in Italy. The wily Portu-

guese saw his necessities and persuaded him to supply them by selling his claims to the trade with the Moluccas. A bargain was struck for 350,000 crowns, or more correctly this sum was paid by Portugal for the exclusive trade in spices, until the Spanish right by the demarcation should be established, and the money refunded. The Spanish council saw that this was a silly contract; and the procuradores of the cortes even offered the same sum for a six years grant of the spice trade; but it was now too late, and the emperor, ashamed of his bargain, commanded that nothing more should be said to him on the subject. This arrangement was completed in 1529 and its stipulations placed the Portuguese in exclusive possession of the Moluccas.

But, Charles V. by no means intended to cede to the king of Portugal under this contract, any thing more than the Molucca trade for the time being. He continued to claim a perfect right to push his discoveries in the Pacific and convinced that the navigation by the Straits of Magellan was extremely hazardous, he committed the business of exploration and conquest to the viceroys of New Spain, as his ablest representatives. Under his direction the viceroy Antonio de Mendoza, examined the coasts of California as far as 40° north lat. and proceeded to extend discoveries in and beyond the Pacific. For this purpose, a fleet of four vessels was equipped, which sailed under command of Ruy Lopes de Villalobos, on all-saints' day, A. D. 1542. It passed through the Marianne islands, naming many and taking possession of them for the crown of Spain. Arriving in the vicinity of Mindanao, in February 1543, and touching at Sarragan, it was determined to form a settlement; but the old Spanish soldiers could hardly be persuaded that it comported with their honor to become tillers of the soil, mere laborers. In fact they succeeded so ill in this line, that scarcity began to press on the settlers, nor did their native allies prove a sufficient dependence for necessary provisions. Ruy Lopes now sought an alliance with the chief rájá of Mindanao, but previous quarrels with the Portuguese had awakened the fears of the native chief, and the Spanish envoy meeting hostilities instead of a welcome, returned unsuccessful. Necessity still pressing on the colonists at Sarragan, a vessel was sent to obtain supplies from the neighboring islands, and it was on one of these expeditions, that the group to the northward was first visited and called 'Filipinas,' in honor of the prince of Asturias, afterward Phillip II.

The arrival of a Spanish fleet had by this time become known at Ternate, and the Portuguese governor lost no time in remonstrating against the infraction of the treaty of 1529. Villalobos replied, that his master had at the same time forbidden him to approach the Moluccas, and commissioned and required him to form establishments in the islands without the cession line. Dissatisfied with this answer, the Portuguese, coasted the islands, persuading the natives to refuse all supplies to the Spaniards, till Villalobos, unable to maintain himself, resolved to seek new locations for his starving followers, at some more northern points. Leaving Sarragan, with this design, the winds and

currents carried his fleet still farther south, and compelled him to make a harbor in Gilolo, where the native chief had before entertained Loaisa's squadron, and by this hospitality, had drawn on himself the enmity of the Portuguese. Villalobos was induced to land and form an alliance with this friendly rájá, but scarcity, resulting from the hostilities of the Portuguese and the impoverished condition of the island, followed him even here. He now dispatched a vessel to conduct the two ships, left at Sarragan, to Gilolo; but the messenger found that the vessels, and a great part of the men left with them, were already cut off. The surviving colonists were collected, and conveyed to Gilolo, stopping on the way to assist the rájá of Panguisari in a petty war, on condition that he would permit the preaching of the Catholic faith and own himself a vassal of Spain! Meantime the 'San Juan' had been dispatched, the 6th August, for New Spain; but after passing through several groups of islands, one of which was a volcano, and reaching the 30th parallel of north latitude, she was compelled, like all her predecessors, to put back again.

The governorship of Ternate now fell into other hands, and the new officer made a treaty with Villalobos, that there should be no communication between their followers, that the Spaniards should purchase no cloves except from the Portuguese and that this compact should continue in force, until rescinded by their superiors the viceroys of India and New Spain. The San Juan was again dispatched for New Spain, the 7th March, 1545, with a cargo of 600 quintals of cloves, for which the other large Spanish ship had been sold to the Portuguese. After four and a half months' absence, she again made her appearance at Tidore. Her commander, persuaded that so many failures proved the impracticability of the northern passage, had attempted to reach New Spain by a southern course. He had coasted the shores of new Guinea with this design, but meeting with the never failing easterly winds and pressed by a mutinous crew, he was compelled to abandon his purpose and return to Tidore.

During the absence of the San Juan, Villalobos had been called on by the Portuguese commander to join him in an attack on the rájá of Gilolo, which he promptly refused. The conferences held by the governor on this subject, and the appearance of several Spanish deserters in the Portuguese service, awakened the suspicions of the native princes who had so long espoused the side of the armaments from Spain. While Villalobos was weakened by this partial defection, the Portuguese party was strengthened by the arrival of a new fleet; and the Spanish officers, fearing that circumstances would force them into ungrateful subserviency to their old rivals, offered to treat for their return to New Spain. Their stipulations on this last point, as well as for the future security of their Tidorean allies, were rejected by the Portuguese, and Villalobos, yielding to the pressure of the times, consented to abandon the native chiefs and take passage viâ India to Spain. His high-minded followers indignantly disavowed these engagements, and many of them passed into the service of their ally, the rájá of Tidore. Villalobos however, continued faithful to his

treaty, and embarked with the greater part of his men for Europe, after having first lent them to the Portuguese, as auxiliaries in an unsuccessful descent on Tidore. These weak concessions to trying circumstances, did not avail their author; he died in the early part of the passage home. His fellow-voyagers, including four Catholic priests, reached Lisbon via Goa, in August, 1549. Thus ended this unfortunate expedition: its only fruits—the examination of some of the islands north of the Moluccas and the bestowal on them of their present name.

A new and happier epoch now opens, in the history we are tracing, with the death of Charles V., on the 21st September, 1558, and the accession of Phillip II. to the throne of Spain. The new monarch remembered the distant islands which had so long borne his name, and enjoined their further examination on Luis de Velasco, his able representative in New Spain. Velasco entered into these views with ardor, and four vessels were immediately prepared and placed by a happy choice under the command of Miguel Lopez de Legaspi, a native of Guipuscoa, and in all respects an accomplished leader and able man. Six Augustine friars accompanied the expedition, headed by P. Urdaneta, who had figured as a good soldier under Villalobos, and thus furnished, the fleet put to sea November 21st, 1564. On the 13th February land was made in about 12° north latitude, which must have been the eastern coasts of the now valuable island of Samar. Following the shores of this and the neighboring island of Leyte, Legaspi sought a friendly intercourse with the natives, which their suspicions, grounded on the recollection of previous injuries from foreigners, often made it impossible to obtain. To those chiefs who had before befriended the Spanish expeditions he sent messages of thanks, and gave the strictest orders that, in every interview with the islanders, the mildest bearing should be shown. At Cabalian, on the southwest point of Leyte, the Dayak ceremony of tasting blood was performed, but unable even after this, to quiet suspicion and obtain provisions, Legaspi was compelled to seize all the edibles within his reach, and then make payment for what their owners could not be persuaded to part with in a more peaceful way.

Remembering the kind reception given to Magellan's fleet at Limasava, a small island south of Leyte, he steered toward it, but the stranger had been there before him, and its principal port was deserted and desolate. Legaspi proceeded to Bohol, and having captured, on the way, a Bornean práhu which shewed hostile demonstrations, he liberated the prisoners, with regrets that they had compelled him to treat them as enemies. From his captives Legaspi learned that his inability to obtain provisions was the result of the general hatred produced by the long continued oppressions of the Portuguese. At the town of Dapitan he was more fortunate; the ancient chief impressed by the superiority of his new guests, sent away his Bornean visitors, declaring that he would have no friends but the Spaniards. Here Legaspi learned the importance of Zebu and determining to proceed thither, he arrived before the town, now one of the most important in

the Phillipines, the 27th April, 1565. The gross defection of the Zebuans from the Catholic faith, their treachery to the companions of Magellan, and the hostilities with which they met his first approach, drew Legaspi from his accustomed mildness, and, landing a force, he sacked the town and drove the inhabitants to the jungles. An image of the Savior, found in one of the native huts, was regarded by the superstitious Spaniards as a miraculous testimony in their favor, and they resolved to fulfil, on the spot, their vow to found a convent and church in the name of Jesus. A general council was also held and it was agreed, that a vessel should be dispatched to New Spain for succor, while possession was kept of the new acquisitions. Urdaneta was chosen to be the messenger of the expedition and to urge the desired assistance. Meanwhile the Zebuans resorted in vain to blockade and poison, to dislodge the invaders. Legaspi found means to procure supplies, by visiting the neighboring islands and forming friendly connections with them. Under these auspices, the Catholic faith was preached in various places, and its ministers were encouraged by many marvellous conversions. A feeble attempt was made by the Portuguese to support their claim to the possession of Zebu; but to these pretensions no concession was made by the Spanish colonists, and they ceased for a time to be pressed.

The ship which it had been determined to dispatch to New Spain, sailed the first of June, and after a favorable passage reached the port of La Navidad, October 3d, 1565. Two months before, the little tender, which had run away from Legaspi's fleet, had also regained a port on the same coast. We are not informed what courses were taken by these two vessels—the first that succeeded in crossing the Pacific from west to east, but no doubt, their happier fortune was due to the choice of a more northern track. The navigator who performs this passage so easily, at the present day, in ships sheathed in copper and with a perfect understanding of the winds of the Pacific, will not the less respect the sagacity which first lead the way to his own success.

The representations of Urdaneta and his associates procured the immediate dispatch of the 'San Geronimo,' the 1st May 1566, to Legaspi's aid. Unhappily her passage was protracted by mutiny and deviation to five and a half months, and her commander had been cut off by the mutineers, and twenty-six of them were abandoned on a desolate island, before the loyal part of her company brought her safely to Zebu. In the mean time Legaspi had been extending his commerce with the adjacent islands, on one of which considerable quantities of cinnamon were found. Three more years were passed in these limited efforts; but when a further reinforcement of two ships and 200 men came, under Felipe de Salcedo, in 1569, Legaspi enlarged his plan of operations, subdued the island of Panay, and prepared an armament for the conquest of Luzon. This expedition moved northward in May 1570, and after some successful descents on Mindoro and Batangas, it approached the spot where Manila now stands.

The territory around this noble bay was then governed by two rájás, an uncle and a nephew, named Matanda, and Soliman. From

the latter cognomen, as well as from their joint possession of some pieces of artillery, we must infer a connection with Arabian visitors, if not a Mohammedan descent, or perhaps an intercourse with China and a traffic with the Portuguese. The elder chief seems to have been a sincere and steady friend of his Spanish guests; but Soliman, notwithstanding his celebration of the Dayak ceremony with De Goyti, attempted soon after to cut him off. The Spanish captain defended himself, and, in turn becoming the assailant, he captured the fort of Soliman with its twelve cannon, and burnt his village.

In De Goyti's absence, Legaspi employed himself in preparing for a meditated attack of the Portuguese, and in dispatching his largest ship with a cargo of 600 quintals of cinnamon to New Spain. This ill fated vessel was driven on shore at Guam, the largest of the Ladrone or Marianne islands (now a Spanish settlement), and no part of her valuable lading saved. The shipwrecked crew warded off the attacks of the islanders, and built themselves a small vessel from the wreck, in which they returned in safety to Zebu. The Catholic faith was now making rapid progress, around the settlement of Legaspi, and among the early converts were Tupas and his son, the former the ablest and most sagacious of the Zebuan chiefs, the latter a promising youth, 20 years of age.

The preparations which Legaspi had been making against an attack from the Portuguese, now proved neither unnecessary nor in vain. A squadron under Pereira appeared off the port, and the Spanish general was required to surrender himself, and to go and answer before the tribunal of Lisbon for his infraction of the compact of 1529. Legaspi answered by fortifying himself, and by assuring his opponent that he was executing, and would abide by his royal master's commands. Hostilities ensued, but the firm resistance of the Spanish commander compelled his antagonist to retire. De Goyti now returned with highly encouraging accounts from Manila, and with him came also a further reinforcement of three vessels from New Spain. Legaspi had the satisfaction to find himself confirmed in his command, and to receive the royal orders to subdue and colonize the Phillipine group, to assign the lands to his victorious soldiers, and to promulgate the Catholic faith. He immediately commenced a regular fortress at Zebu, erected the settlement into a city; and determining to be present at the fulfilment of his purposes, he sailed the 15th April, 1571, for the bay of Manila, the admirable position of which for his colonial capital, he already foresaw. Matanda received the Spanish general kindly, and a friendly arrangement of differences being made with Soliman also, both these chiefs were formally accepted as vassals of the crown of Spain. Legaspi proceeded to found a fort, a church, a convent, and a palace, on the left bank of the river Pasig, at the eastern extremity of the bay, and an existence was thus given to Manila, the 19th May, 1571. The day being that of Santa Potenciana, she was named patroness of the Phillipine islands, an honor which her saintship still retains.

It now became evident that there existed a party among the native chiefs, who regarded the intruding foreigners with hatred, or who had by no means understood what was meant by the submission they had promised to a foreign crown. A league was formed by the malcontents for the expulsion of the strangers, but when these rude allies presented themselves before the walls of Manila, the newly planted cannon soon broke their ranks and their compact, and Legaspi remained, without an antagonist. His first attention was then given to his capital, and on the 24th of June, 1571, '*Manila*' was formally incorporated as the chief city of 'Nueva Castilla' or Luzon, as well as of the lesser islands of the Phillipine group; officers were appointed; and Don Miguel Lopes de Legaspi assumed the title of first 'governor and captain-general,' the style which his successors still retain. Afterwards, when the royal cedules of 1574 came, they conceded to the 'noble and ever loyal city,' all the privileges of the capitals of kingdoms. Legaspi now extended his power northward to Pangasinan, Ylocos, &c., and southward to Camarines; and to his perpetual honor it is recorded, that these advances were unmarked by any of those excesses and cruelties, which foul the annals of Spanish supremacy in America, and disgrace many an otherwise distinguished name. We must not omit to notice a happy augury which is recorded as having greatly cheered the founders of Manila at this time. A soldier, strolling beside a marsh, discovered an image of the Virgin. The natives declared that it had been, from time immemorial, the object of their veneration, and that they had often removed it to a worthier site, but that it would always find its way back to the palm-marsh again. This treasure trove was forthwith deposited in the church of the Conception, amid much questioning, whether it had reached the islands by some prior vessel, or by the hands of saint Thomas the apostle. A sumptuous church was afterward built to the Virgin on the spot where this relic was found, but being shattered by earthquakes, and having moreover served the ill purpose of covering the approaches of the English in 1762, the holy image was removed to the cathedral, whereof it still continues, say our authorities, to be a chief ornament. Its miraculous powers, they add, have been most signally displayed in the protection of those navigating between Manila and Acapulco, in recognition of which, a novenary of votive masses is always celebrated on the sailing of the annual galleon, to the manifest preservation of this most valuable branch of the Manila trade.

The able leader, who had thus achieved the conquest of the Phillipines, is said to have held equally sagacious and liberal opinions on matters of foreign policy, and to have sought to obtain for them all the benefits of a free and extensive intercourse. The wreck of some Chinese junks on the coast of Mindoro soon after afforded him an opportunity to display these sentiments to great advantage. The Mindorans, with the same lax views on this point which long prevailed elsewhere, appropriated the property of the unfortunate Chinese; but Legaspi compelled them to give up their spoil, and on dismissing

the grateful strangers, assured them of a welcome, at all times, to the *free port* of Manila. This liberality is said to have made a deep impression on them: and as to the accompanying offer to give them the silver of Mexico in exchange for the merchandise of China, it seems quite probable, for aught we know of the Chinese character, that it was very interesting to them—"les era muy interesante,' as our books say. Relying on these overtures, junks came the following year with Chinese cargoes, which were promptly exchanged for silver, and Legaspi availed of their return, to send letters and presents to the governor of Fuhkeën, which it is probable, were duly delivered. A ship which was dispatched soon after for New Spain, carried a portion of these Chinese productions, as evidence that a commerce was really opened with that country.

But the time was now come when the individual, to whose prudence, enterprise, and courage, Spain was mainly indebted for her possession of the Phillipines, was to be called away from the scene of his arduous but successful labors. On the 20th of August 1572, Legaspi died, after a very short illness, and was buried in the Augustine church, amid all the expressions of public veneration and public sorrow. Very probably those who shared his successes and lamented his death, have drawn his character in too glowing colors. The spirit of a military age and a proud nation prevented them from seeing, as we do now, the odiousness of armed colonisation, both in a public and private point of view. But palliating this common obliquity of his day and generation, the sagacity, patience, activity, and liberality, which marked the enterprises of Legaspi and ensured their success, entitle him, beyond a question, to the highest rank among the celebrated leaders of his age, if not to the very first name on the list of the founders of the colonies of Spain.

Art. II. *Siamese History: notices continued from the Siamese era,* 918 *to* 926 *(or from* A. D. 1542 *to* 1550*).* By a Correspondent.

Siamese era, 918. After the taking of the city by the Peguans, the following circumstances are related with considerable minuteness, and may be quoted as an illustration of eastern etiquette. 'The king of Siam was conducted to the king of Pegu, into whose presence he *crawled.* The first thing the conqueror did was to move his *betel* and *siri* apparatus to his visitant, who did not take anything from it; he next took betel and siri and presented them with his own hand; the recipient clasped them a while and then masticated them; the Peguan king then presented him a cospidor, but he did not use it.' The relation of such matters the Siamese call history! After all this, the

Peguan monarch proceeds to say to his guest, that it was customary in war for kings to seek for conquest, that the glory of it might fill the earth, but he would not have his guest dejected, and invited him to go home with him and visit Pegu. He was committed to Mahá Thamma rájá with instructions to see him well provided for; the king of Pegu then collected most of the people, and every thing that was curious and fanciful, to be conveyed to Pegu. But 10,000 men, women and children, with a hundred officers of various grades, were left to people the country, and Mahá Thamma rájá was constituted king of Siam, at the age of 55, under a title which recognized him as divine, related to the sun, equal to the greatest genius above, the righteous conqueror of celestial spirits, however, exalted, and emperor of the magnificent kingdom of Siam, ever abounding in all precious substances. After all this, his Peguan majesty left 3,000 men to guard the country, and returned home by way of Kempéngpet. While on their way to Pegu, the captive king fell sick. His conqueror furnished him with physicians, and gave orders, that, if they did not cure him, they should be put to death. However, after ten or twelve days he died, and the Peguan king caused ten of his doctors, Peguan, Burman, and Siamese, to be executed, after which he burnt the body, and sent the bones back to Siam.

919. The Cambojans marched upon Siam with 30,000 men. The Siamese, conscious of their defenceless state, and their inability to contend with such a force, proposed to fall over in a body to Pitsanulók. But it was suggested to the king that such a step would disgrace him in the estimation of the Peguans, and he concluded to try his strength. The enemy assailed the city three times, but being unsuccessful, retired, not, however, without taking many prisoners from the outer provinces. Afterwards they plundered and carried off the inhabitants of Chantaburí and the neighboring settlements.

920. The king sent his son, Naret, to govern Pitsanulók, at the age of sixteen.

921. The king of Pegu set on foot an expedition against Lán Cháng (South Laos), and sent word to the king of Siam and the governor of Pitsanulók to assist him in the enterprise. They obeyed the summons, but the Laos defended their country so bravely that the assailants were obliged to return before the commencement of the rainy season. The Cambojans, moreover, marched into Siam, took numerous captives, approached the capital from whence they were repulsed, but succeeded in carrying off great numbers of people and their officers, and the two bronze images, the digging out of which an account has already been given.

922. This year the king of Camboja sent an army under charge of two of his principal officers (one of whom was a Chinese named Chantu), to assail a province of Siam called Pechhaburí. They proved unsuccessful, and Chantu fearing the displeasure of the king at his defeat, instead of returning, collected the forces at his disposal, and fled to the king of Siam. The latter was so pleased that he loaded Chantu with favors. With the property thus acquired, he built him-

self a junk—embarked his family and attendants, and fled. He was closely pursued by prince Naret, who had come to visit his father; but he escaped.

924. The king had the royal city enlarged by a trench on the east, ten fathoms broad and three deep, and the wall extended near it. Phyá Phichhian excited rebellion, which threw the whole country into commotion; but he was slain in an attempt to take Lopburi, and his party made slaves to the government. In the 3d month, the king of Camboja, with 70,000 men, made another attempt to take Pechaburí, and after three unsuccessful attacks at scaling, succeeded the fourth time—plundered the city—took all its inhabitants prisoners, and returned.

925. The Cambojans made another assault upon the country, but were repulsed with slaughter by Naret.

926. The king of Pegu died on Saturday, 7th day of the 2d month, at the age of 65, after a reign of 15 years, and was succeeded by his son Mangurng. This change of sovereigns, was followed by the rebellion of the provinces Rum and Khang. Prince Naret being apprized of these circumstances, visited his father, and explained to him the whole course of events, and resigned his place to go and assist the king of Pegu, in restoring order to his empire. He then returned to Pitsanulók, collected 100,000 men, 800 elephants, 1500 horses, and marched for Pegu, where he was received with great rejoicing. He joined his forces with those of Pegu, and, by his skill and courage, the rebellious cities were soon reduced, and their leaders led captive to the capital. The king rewarded prince Naret with high praises and substantial presents of golden vessels, &c. He then returned to Pitsanulók, and thence proceeded to the Siamese capital, where he related every occurrence to his royal father, who was so delighted, that he caused his achievements to be celebrated in a feast of seven days' duration. Thence Naret returned again to Pitsanulók. The Peguan king, however, regardless of gratitude and justice, concluded, that as prince Naret was so intelligent and so daring and powerful in war, he would probably hereafter prove a thorn to the Peguans. He therefore formed the plan of removing all the inhabitants of the northern provinces down to Pegu, as a means of defence in any emergency. He then employed false pretences to overthrow prince Naret's fair prospects. He dispatched messengers to him, saying the governor of Ava had rebelled and was fortifying himself, and he solicited Naret's assistance. The latter, on consultation with his father, collected an army of men, horses, and elephants, and marched for Pegu without the least suspicion of evil. The Peguan king, on the other hand, when he heard of Naret's approach, sent a part of his army to waylay him, rout his forces, and bring him a prisoner to Pegu. It was supposed that, if this purpose was effected, it would confer a glory on Pegu such as no other country had ever enjoyed. Phyá Kian, and Phra Rám, to whom this business was entrusted, proceeded, and met prince Naret at a place called Kréng, told him that they had been sent by the king of Pegu to conduct him forward, and after having

paid their respects to him, left him to pay their devotions to a priest of the place named Kanchâng, to whom they disclosed the commission with which they had been entrusted by the king of Pegu. The priest was touched with compassion for the prince Naret, as one who had committed no offense, and looked upon him as one through whose influence the Budhist religion was to be perpetuated. In the evening, therefore, he took his informers and paid a visit to Naret, and after giving him his blessing, told him that his companions brought information of some mischievous purpose of the Peguan king against him. Prince Naret inquired the reasons of such a measure, and Phyá Kian and Phra Râm rehearsed the whole matter from the commencement. The prince was greatly vexed, and his affections sundered from the king of Pegu at once. But, in token of his gratitude for the timely information communicated, he offered to take the priest and his attendants under his protection, convey them to Siam, and provide for them and all connected with them, to which they, of course, assented. He then took a solemn oath, calling upon all the genii of the world above to witness, that thenceforth the kingdoms of Siam and Pegu were severed forever. He immediately commenced his march home, gathering all the Peguans he could find on his march, and when he came to the Sataung river, he collected all the boats and rafts possible, crossed his army and captives, and then burnt the whole flotilla. On his arrival at the capital of Siam, his father confirmed the oath he had made, rewarded the priest and his companions, under whose government he placed the Peguan captives, and the Prince returned to Pitsanulók, where he expended immense sums of gold in religious offerings.

[A race of people called Thaiyai are often referred to in writings regarding Siam; but who they are, or where, has been matter of considerable doubt. They are referred to in this Siamese history several times. In the year 926 (Siamese era), a party of them belonging to Wiang Siia, fled from Kampéngpet to Pitsanulók. About the same time, more than 20,000 are said to have come and located themselves in Chhiang Thông. Among them were a prince from a place called Chi, and another from Lôngchémai. Wiang in the South Laos dialect, and Chhiang in the North Laos, both signify country, but where Siia, Thông, Chi, and Lôngchémai are situated is beyond my knowledge. Some writings which are said to be Thaiyaí, have been shown me, which are evidently in the character of the South Laos, and it seems not improbable that they were a portion of the Laos, possibly having some peculiarities of manner and language, such as now prevail between the Northern and Southern Laos, or between the inhabitants of Bankok and Ligore. These two latter have indeed the same written character, but their pronunciation is exceedingly diverse. The principal object of this note is to elicit information on this topic from any who are capable of communicating it.]

Art. III. *Geology of Central Asia: survey of the four great systems of mountains, which cross that region; the Altaic, the Teënshan, the Kwaulun, and the Himálaya.*

In connection with the accounts given in our previous numbers concerning the different geographical divisions of Central Asia, and the brief survey there taken of the various nations and hords inhabiting that region, we here give our readers an epitome of its geological formation, extracted from Macgillivray's sketch of Humboldt's travels. The journey of that distinguished traveler into Asiatic Russia afforded him an opportunity of investigating a portion of the world, of which the physical formation is as yet very partially known, and which still presents a rich field to the enterprising naturalist.

The middle and internal part of Asia, which forms neither an immense aggregate of hills, nor a continuous platform, is intersected from east to west by four great systems of mountains, which have exercised a decided influence upon the movements of nations. These systems are, 1. The Altaic, which is terminated to the west by the mountains of the Kirghís; 2. the Teënshan; 3. the Kwanlun; and, 4. the Himálaya chains. Between the Atlaic range and the Teënshan are Soungaria and the basin of the Ele; between the Teënshan and the Kwanlun, are Little or Upper Bokhára (Eastern Túrkestan) or Kashgar, Yárkand, and Khoten, the great desert of Shamo, Túrfan, Khamil, and Tangout, which last must not be confounded with Tibet. Lastly, between the Kwanlun and the Himálaya are eastern and western Tibet, in which are Lassa and Ladak. Were the three elevated plains between the Atlaic, the Teënshan, the Kwanlun, and the Himálaya ranges to be indicated by the position of three alpine lakes, we might select for this purpose those of Balkashi, Lop, and Tengri or Tengkiri, which correspond to the plains of Soungaria, Tangout, and Tibet.

1. System of the Altaic. This chain surrounds the sources of the Irtish and Yenisei or Kem. To the east it takes the name of Tangnou; between the lakes Kosogol and Baikal, that of the Sayanian mountains; beyond it is called the Upper Kentai (Kenteh), and the Daourian mountains; and lastly, to the northeast, it connects itself with the Yablonoy chain, the Khingan range, and the Aldan mountains, which advance along the sea of Okhotsk. The mean latitude of its prolongation from east to west is between 50° and 51° 30′ north. The Altaic range, properly so called, scarcely occupies seven degrees of longitude; but the northern part of the mountains, surrounding the great mass of elevated lands in the interior of Asia, and occupying the space comprised between 48° and 51° north, is considered as belonging to this system, because simple names are more easily retained by the memory, and because that of Altaic is more known to Europeans by its

metallic richness, which amounts annually to 45,907 troy pounds of silver, and 1246 troy pounds of gold. The Altaic mountains are not a chain forming the boundary of a country, like the Himálaya, which limit the elevated plain of Tibet, and have a rapid slope only on the side next to India, which is lower. The plains in the neighborhood of lake Balkashi, have not an elevation of more than 1920 feet above the level of the sea. Between the meridians of Oust-Kamenogorsk and Semipolatinsk the Altaic system is prolonged, from east to west, under the parallels of 49° and 50°, by a chain of low mountains, over an extent of 736 miles, as far as the steppe of the Kirghís. This ridge has been elevated through a fissure which forms the line of separation of the streams of the Sarasou and Irtish, and which regularly follows the same direction over an extent of 16 degrees of longitude. It consists of stratified granites not intermixed with gneiss, and of greenstone, porphyry, jasper, and transition limestone, in which there occur various metallic substances. This low range does not reach the southern extremity of the Ural, a chain which, like the Andes, presents a long wall running north and south, with metallic mines on its eastern slope, but terminates abruptly in the meridian of Sverinogovloskoi. Here commences a remarkable region of lakes, comprising the group of Balek-koul (lat. 51° 30′ north), and that of Koumkoul (lat. 49° 45′), indicating an ancient communication of a mass of water with the lake Aksagal, which receives the Tourgai and the Kamichloi Irghis, as well as with lake Aral; and which would seem, from Chinese accounts, to have formed part of a great plain extending to the borders of the Frozen ocean.

2. System of the Teënshan or celestial mountains. The mean latitude of this system is 42.° Its highest summit is perhaps the mass of mountains covered with perpetual snow, and celebrated under the name of Bokhdaoula, from which Pallas gives the name of Bogdo to the whole chain. From Bokhdaoula and Khatounbokhda, the Teënshan runs eastward towards Barkoul, where they are suddenly lowered so as to fall to the level of the elevated desert, called the Great Cobi or Shamo, which extends from Kwachow, a Chinese town, to the sources of the Argoun. If we now return to Bokhdaoula, we find the western prolongation of these mountains stretching to Goudja and Koutché, then between lake Temoustou and Aksou to the north of Kashgar, and running towards Samarkand. The country comprehended between the Altaic chain and the Teënshan is shut up to the east, beyond the meridian of Peking, by the Khinganoula, a lofty ridge, which runs from southwest to northeast; but to the west it is entirely open. The case is very different with the country limited by the second and third systems, the Teënshan and Kwanlun ranges; it being closed to the west by a transverse ridge running from north to south under the name of Bolor or Belúrtág. [This chain separates Little Bokhária from Great Bokhária, the country of Kaffiristan, Badakshan, and Upper Jihon?] Its southern part, which is connected with the Kwanlun system, forms a part of the Tsungling of the Chinese. To the north, it joins the chain which passes to the northwest

of Kashgar. Between Khokánd, Dervagel, and Hissar, consequently between the still unknown sources of the Sihon (or Sir) and Amou (or Oxus), the Teënshan rises before lowering again in the khanate of Bokhára, and presents a group of high mountains, several of which are covered with snow even in summer. More to the east it is less elevated. The road from Semipolatinsk to Kashgar passes to the east of lake Balkashi, and to the west of lake Ossikoul, (?) and crosses the Narim, a tributary of the Sihon. At the distance of 69½ miles from the Narim, to the south, it passes over the Rovat, which has a large cave, and is the highest point before arriving at the Chinese post—to the south of the Aksou—the village of Artuche, and Kashgar. This city, which is built on the banks of the Aratumen, has 15,000 houses and 80,000 inhabitants, although it is smaller than Samarkand.

The western prolongation of the Teënshan, or as it is there called, the Muztág, is deserving of particular examination. At the point where the Belúrtág joins the Muztág at right angles, the latter continues to run without interruption from east to west, under the name of Asferahtág, to the south of the Sihon, towards Kodjend and Ourateppeh (Uratippa) in Fergána. This chain of Asferahtág, which is covered with perpetual snow, separates the sources of the Sihon (Jaxartes) from those of the Amou (Oxus). It turns to the southwest nearly in the meridian of Kodjend, and in this direction is named (till it approaches Samarkand) the Aktág or Al Botous. More to the west, on the fertile banks of the Kohick, commences the vast depression of ground comprising Great Bokhária and the country of Maweralnehar; but beyond the Caspian sea, nearly in the same direction as the Teënshan range, is seen the Caucasus, with its porphyries and trachites. It may, therefore, be considered as a continuation of the fissure upon which the Teënshan is raised in the east; just as to the west of the great mass of mountains of Azerbaijan and Armenia, mount Taurus is a continuation of the action of the fissure of the Hima´laya and Hindú Kúsh mountains.

3. The Kwanlun system. The Kwanlun or Koulkoun chain is between Khoten, the mountains of Kokonor, and eastern Tibet, and the country named Kachar. It commences to the west at the Tsungling range. It is connected with the transverse chain of Belúr, as observed above, and, according to the Chinese books, forms its southern part. This section of the globe between Little Tibet and Badakshan is very little known, although it is rich in rubies, lapis lazuli, and mineral turquoise; and, according to recent accounts, the plain of Khora´sa´n, which runs in the direction of Herat, and limits the Hindúkho to the north, appears to be rather a continuation of the Tsungling and of the whole system of Kwanlun to the west, than a prolongation of the Hima´laya, as is commonly supposed. From the Tsungling, the Kwanlun or Koulkoun range runs from west to east towards the sou ces of the Hwangho or Yellow River, and penetrates with its snowy summits into the province of Kansuh. Nearly in the meridian of these springs rises the great mass of mountains bordering on lake Kokonor, resting to the north upon the snowy chain of the

Keleënshan, which also runs from west to east. Between these last and the Teënshan, the heights of Tangout limit the margin of the upper desert of Cobi or Shamo, which is prolonged from southwest to northeast. The latitude of the central part of the Kwanlun range is 35° 30′ north.

4. Hima′laya system. This range separates the valleys of Cashmere and Nipa′l from Bútan and Tibet. To the west it rises in the mountain Javaher to an elevation of 25,746 feet, and to the east in Dhwalagiri to 28,074 feet, above the level of the sea. Its general direction is from northwest to southeast, and thus it is not at all parallel to the Kwanlun range, to which it approaches so near in the meridian of Attok and Jellalabad, that they seem to form the same mass of mountains. Following the Hima′laya range eastward, we find it bordering A′sa′m on the north, containing the sources of the Brahmapútra, passing through the northern part of A′va, and penetrating into the province of Yunnan in China. It there exhibits pointed and snow-clad summits. It bends abruptly to the northeast, on the confines of Hoonan, Keängse, and Fuhkeën, and advances its peaks to the ocean, the island of Formosa, the mountains of which are in like manner covered during the greater part of summer, being its termination. Thus we may follow the Hima′laya system as a continuous chain from the eastern ocean through Hindúkho, across Candahar and Khora′san, to beyond the Caspian sea into Azerbaijan, along an extent of 73 degrees, or half the length of the Andes. The western extremity which is volcanic, (like the eastern part,) loses its character of a chain in the mountains of Armenia, which are connected with Sangalou, Binghel, and Kachmirdagh, in the pashalic of Erzroum. The mean direction of the system is north 55° west.

These mountain chains with their various ramifications and intervening platforms and valleys, afford evidence of revolutions anciently undergone by the crust of the globe; these having been elevated by matter thrust up in the line of enormous cracks and fissures. The great depression of Central Asia was probably caused by the same action. Analagous to the Caspian sea and other cavities in this district, are the lakes formed in Europe at the foot of the Alps, and which also owe their origin to a sinking of the ground. It is chiefly in the extent of this depression of Central Asia, and consequently in the space where resistance was least, that we find traces of volcanic action. Several volcanoes are described in this space by ancient Chinese authors, who also mention a variety of volcanic products, such as sal ammoniac and sulphur, which form articles of commerce.

We thus know in the interior of Asia, a volcanic territory, the surface of which is upwards of 2500 square geographical miles, and which is from 1000 to 1400 miles distant from the sea. It fills the half of the longitudinal valley situated between the first and second systems of mountains. The principal seat of volcanic action appears to be in the Teënshan. Perhaps the colossal Bokhdaoula is of trachite formation like Chimborazo. On both sides of the Teënshan violent earthquakes occur. The city of Aksou was entirely destroyed

at the commencement of the eighteenth century by a commotion of this nature. In eastern Siberia, the centre of the circle of shocks appears to be at Irkutsk, and in the deep basin of lake Baikal, in the vicinity of which volcanic products are observed. But this point of the Altaic range is the extreme limit of these phenomena, no earthquakes having been experienced farther to the west, in the plains of Siberia, between the Altaic and Uralian ranges, or in any parts of the latter.

The volcanic territory of Bishbalik is to the east of the great depression of Asia. To the south and west of their internal basin, we find two cones in activity — Demavend, which is visible from Tehran in Persia, and Seiban of Ararat, which is covered with vitreous lavas. On both sides of the isthmus between the Caspian and Black seas, springs of Naphtha and eruptions of mud are frequent. On the western margin of the great depression, if we proceed from the Caucasian isthmus to the north and northwest, we arrive at the territory of the great horizontal and tertiary deposits of southern Russia and Poland. Here we find igneous rocks piercing the red sandstone of Jekaterinoslay, together with asphaltum, and springs impregnated with sulphurous gazes.

A phenonenon so great as that of the central depression of Asia, which resembles the circular valies of the moon, could have been produced only by a very powerful cause, acting in the interior of the earth. This cause, while forming the crust of the globe by sudden raisings and sinkings, probably filled with metallic substances the fissures of the Uralian and Altaic chains. *See Humboldt's travels and researches, by W. Macgillivray, pp.* 352–367.

Note. We have found it difficult to follow our author in some parts of his Essay; and, to avoid the hazard of changing his meaning, we have followed for the most part his own orthography in the names of places.

Art. IV. *Gaoumun fan yu tsă tsze tesuen taou, or A complete collection of the miscellaneous words used in the foreign language of Macao. 2. Hungmaou mae mae tung yung kwei hwa, or those words of the devilish language of the red-bristled people commonly used in buying and selling.*

In the account given sometime since of the means usually employed by the Chinese in learning to speak English, we mentioned the existence of manuscript vocabularies, which were frequently seen in their hands, and which each individual formed as his circumstances required. Some of them attain a very respectable size, containing upwards of three thousand words and phrases, and are valuable to those who wish to learn the modes employed by natives in expressing foreign objects. But we were not aware that these collections had ever been

published until recently, when we met with the two little Vocabularies whose titles are quoted above The first, much the most complete of the two, is a general collection of Portuguese words and phrases; the other is designed to assist the Chinese trader in his traffic with his 'red-bristled' customers. Small and imperfect as they both are, these incipient attempts in philology deserve a passing notice, inasmuch as they show the Chinese mode of doing such things; and moreover plainly declare the want that exists for fuller and better arranged dictionaries. Were this want supplied, the native merchant would not continue to use the barbarous jargon now spoken at Canton; since from a well digested grammar and dictionary he would learn English idioms; and not, as at present, arrange all his English words according to Chinese idioms.

Indeed, we are of the opinion that it would be well worth the while of some sinologue to prepare a complete vocabulary of English words for the special use of the Chinese. He could procure his materials from such manuscripts and published collections as those we allude to; and would, no doubt, by such a work materially improve the present colloquial dialect. How greatly the mutual good understanding of natives and foreigners would be improved by a better dialect, every one residing at Canton can testify. The fact that for many years to come, the task of acquiring another language will for the most part fall to the share of the native, is also another inducement for compiling such a work.

The collection of Portuguese and Chinese words is designed for natives residing at Macao and its vicinity; and in the compass of thirty-four pages contains upwards of 1200 examples. They are arranged under sixteen heads; as eatables, social relations, natural objects, buying and selling, furniture, weights, &c.; and under each division there are found words sufficient for the common intercourse of life. The examples are placed in columns, and the translation is given in Chinese sounds immediately beneath each one, but in a smaller type. The same character is always employed to represent the same sound. But while the sounds of many of the Portuguese words are expressed so uncouthly, as they are with the rough monosyllables of the Chinese, we do not see how a native can use his acquisitions in conversation without at the same time he learns the pronunciation *viva voce*. For instance

Imperador, emperor, is sounded, *in-pe-la-taw-loo.*
Agora, now, is sounded, *a-ko-lăp.*
Gente, a man, is sounded, *yen-tik.*
Casa, a house, is sounded, *kak-tsze.*
Carta, a letter, is sounded, *keet-ta.*
Dentro, within, is sounded, *teen-too-loo.*

The majority of the words are, however, represented by Chinese sounds close enough for the reader to detect the word he has heard in conversation; and also, on the other hand, for the student to catch by the ear the phrase he previously learned from the book. On the

cover there is a picture of a Portuguese, dressed in the costume of 1600, with a cocked hat, powdered cue, short breeches, and a sword. Both of the works are printed at Fushan near this city, and are anonymous. The first book is as good a 'muster' of Chinese attainments in foreign philology as we have hitherto seen; though far behind what can and ought to be accomplished in the really difficult task of expressing foreign words and ideas in Chinese.

Against the title of the second vocabulary we have a strong objection. It is another instance of the studied contempt this people endeavor to throw upon everything foreign; and cannot be too strongly reprobated. In several places, things and occupations are stigmatized by the epithet of *devilish*, and that without the least necessity. Nothing of this kind is to be discovered in the Portuguese and Chinese collection, where the term *foreign* is used. This continual endeavor to degrade the English in the eyes of their countrymen appears to run through all classes of the Chinese; and we were rather surprised that any one should have condescended to prepare a vocabulary of a 'devilish language.' The title alone is an inducement for one to give them a new and better compilation. The English vocabulary consists of only sixteen pages, containing less than 400 words, and is probably the production of the same hand as the first one. He, however, knew much less of English than he did of Portuguese. The examples are arranged under the four heads, of numbers, men and things, words used in conversation, and eatables. Some of the phrases are singular for the attempt to express a difficult sound; and others are curious for the translation given. A few examples will suffice.

Tael is pronounced *te.*
Jacket is expressed by *tik-ka.*
Alike is expressed by *a-loo-sum*, intended for all the same.
To sell is expressed by *say-lum*, or sell 'em.
Commonly by *so-so.*
To exchange by *cheen-che*, or change.
To want by *kah-le*, probably derived from the Portuguese *querer.*
A clothes-seam devil is expressed by *tay-le-mun*, or tailor man.
The devil of the kitchen is a *kok-mun*, or cook.
An account is *kan-ta*, or counter.
A husband is *hah-sze-mun.*
A wife is *wi-foo.*
A beggar is not inaptly rendered by *kum-sha-mun*, or *kum-shaw-man.*
Unclean is *tah-te*, or dirty.
To call is *kah-lum*, or call 'em.
The earth is *kaw-lang*, or ground.
Distant is translated by *lang-wi*, or long way.
Please is rendered by *chin-chin.*
To set is *sheet-tum*, or sit down.
Great is rendered *kah-lan-te* from the Portuguese *grande*, which is an evidence that the same person is author of both works.

Leisure is *hap-teem*, or have time.
Whither is *kwut-yu-ko*, or what you go?
To enter is *ko-yeen-si*, or go inside.
Occupied is *hap-pe-chun*, or have pidgeon or business.
Presently come is *tik-lik-ke-kum*, or directly come.
Not understand is *no-sha-pe*, naŏ saber, or not know.
Orange is *loo-lan-che*, like the Portuguese *laranja*.
Gentlemen's sons is translated *meet-che-mun*, or midshipman.

These are enough to show why the Chinese speak barbarous English as they do. If the teachers and books are so defective, how can we expect the scholars to be accomplished? A Chinese commits one of these vocabularies to memory, and then constructs his sentences according to the idioms of his own language; which is the only way he knows aught about the subject, and then considers himself an elegant scholar, fully able to act as an interpreter between the high authorities of his own country and the foreign merchants! None of these 'linguists' can read the simplest document in English; nor can more than two or three of them understand two Englishmen in their common conversation. Persons in England might suppose that a Chinese would be glad to receive instruction, and qualify himself for his profession; but we know that not one of these linguists ever comes to a foreigner for aid, or ever thinks of taking any lessons in the English language. They pick up their words in conversation and from vocabularies and native teachers. Now, while such is the state of things, we think that an intelligible chrestomathy and dictionary, which will give the native the sound of the foreign word in Chinese and in English characters, with some directions for speaking with a little regard to gender, time, &c., would be an excellent means of improving the present barbarous jargon. The publication of a work of this kind would perhaps come within the sphere of a society having for its object the promotion of useful knowledge. And with such crude attempts as these before us, we can recommend the preparation of a complete dictionary to the society already established, believing that it would do much towards the improvement of our intercourse, and tend to create a better mutual good will between parties now mutually prejudiced, because each is ignorant of the others views and motives.

Moreover, we think that foreigners, who intend to reside many years in this country, will find themselves amply rewarded for any time they may employ in learning the Chinese language. With proper attention, and suitable helps, an industrious man, by daily attention to the local dialect, for a few months, or a year or two at most, would learn such a number of words and phrases as to enable him to excuse his Chinese friends from the hard task of acquiring their *kwei hwa!* The man, too, who learns the language, even to this limited extent, will truly save himself from many impositions; and, not unfrequently, will command respect, and secure influence, far beyond what he could do without such knowledge. In this case, as in all others, he would find that knowledge is power.

Art. V. *English and American trade: statements of the trade to Canton, in vessels of Great Britain and the United States of America, from July 1st, 1836, to the 30th of June, 1837.*

The following statements have been prepared and published under the direction of the 'General Chamber of Commerce;' we copy them from the Canton Register, where they are signed by William Scott, secretary to the committee of the Chamber. Mr. Scott has appended to the statements the following remark as a note; 'The values of the different articles must be considered as only a rough approximation to the probable average of the season; it being impossible to attain greater accuracy, owing to the Chamber having been formed at so late a period of the year, that, before commencing to collect the materials from which the foregoing statement is compiled, most of the vessels had taken their departure.'

STATEMENT OF TRADE IN BRITISH VESSELS AT CANTON.

Imports.		Quantity.	Average Price.	Per	Tot. val. *Sp. Drs.*
Broad Cloth	Yds.	1295279	$ 1.20	Yard	1554335
Camlets	Pces.	16257	25.	Piece	406425
Long Ells	„	89124	9.	„	802116
Bombazetts	„	4613	11.	„	50743
Woollen Yarn	Pls.	165	100.	Pecul	16500
Flannel	Yds.	2400	.33	Yard	792
Blankets	Pairs	1322	4.	Pair	5288
Velveteens	Yds.	4996	.20	Yard	999
Cotton Yarn	Pls.	18431	40.	Pecul	737240
Long Cloths	Yds.	5629849	.12½	Yard	703730
Domestics	„	7286	.10	„	729
Handkerchiefs	Doz.	35620	1.50	Dozen	53430
Chintzes	Yds.	119808	.12½	Yard	14976
Cambrics	„	22850	„	„	2856
Linen	„	10920	1.	„	10920
Canvas	Bolts	198	12.	Bolt	2376
Gold Thread	Catties	167	40.	Catty	6680
Cochineal	Pls.	349	180.	Pecul	62820
Smalts	„	166	38.	„	6308
Ginseng	„	52	60.	„	3120
Quicksilver	„	2054	115.	„	236210
Tin Plates	Boxes	1200	7.50	Box	9000
Tin	Pls.	15732	19.	Pecul	298908
Spelter	„	2955	5.50	„	16252
Lead	„	14961	6.	„	89766
Iron	„	16238	3.	„	48714
Copper	„	54	20.	„	1080
Amber, False	Chests	42	20.	Chest	840
Betel Nut	Pls.	23755	3.	Pecul	71265
Bicho de Mar	„	134	6.	„	804
					5,215,222

Imports, continued.		Quantity.	Average Price.	Per	tot. val. *Sp. Drs.*
					$5215222
Birds' Nests	Catties	373	$20.	Catty	7460
Camphor Baroos	„	121	40.	„	4840
Cotton, Bengal	Pls.	240192	Tls.9.	Pecul	3002400
Bombay	„	347580	8.5	„	4103375
Madras	„	89579	9.	„	1119738
Cornelians	—	—	—	value	135700
Cloves	Pls.	198	$ 28.	Pecul	5544
Ebony	„	9796	3.	„	29388
Elephants' Teeth	„	532	85.	„	45220
Fish Maws	„	1501	55.	„	82555
Glass Beads	Chests	10	18.	Chest	180
Gum Olibanum	Pls.	3820	3.	Pecul	11460
Anime	„	157	4.	„	628
Myrrh	„	205	5.	„	1025
Copal	„	67	20	„	1340
Bdellium	„	1234	4.	„	4936
Horns, Rhinoceros	„	20	20.	„	400
Unicorn	„	63	40.	„	2520
Kayabuco Wood	„	33	5.	„	165
Mother Cloves	„	46	10.	„	460
Mother O'Pearl Shells	„	1619	4.	„	6476
Opium, Patna	Chests	7192	778.	Chest	5595376
Benares	„	2575	683.	„	1758725
Malwa	„	17687	675.	Pecul	11938725
Turkey	Pls.	292	611.	value	178412
Pearls	—	—	—	„	120000
Pepper	Pls.	12311	8.	Pecul	98488
Pimento	„	30	10.	„	300
Putchuck	„	357	18.	„	6426
Rattans	„	8155	3.	„	24465
Rice	„	218949	1.50	„	328424
Saltpetre	„	10031	7.50	„	75233
Sandal Wood	„	10325	22.	„	227150
Sapan Wood	„	142	3.	„	426
Sea horse Teeth	„	44	40.	„	1760
Sharkfins	„	4650	26.	each	120900
Skins, Land Otter	No.	7376	6.	„	44256
Sea Otter	„	834	40.	„	33360
do. Tails	„	713	4.	„	2852
Rabbit	„	9980	.50	„	4990
Musk-rat	„	4735	1.	Pecul	4735
Soap	Pls.	162	3.	„	486
Stock Fish	„	1195	5.	„	5975
Sundries	—	—	—	value	77224
Treasure, Gold	—	—	—	„	5912
Plata Pina	—	—	—	„	87393
Bar Silver	—	—	—	„	70226
Dollars	—	—	—	„	307409
				Spanish Dollars.	34.900.662

Advances negotiated by the East India Company, from 1st May 1836 to 30th April 1837. Spanish Dollars 4,186,663=£ 968,236.8.10.

Exports.		Quantity.	Average Price.	Per	Tot. val. *Sp. Drs.*
Alum	Pls.	35632	2.50	Pecul	85080
Anniseed	Chests	383	11.	Chests	4213
Arsenic	„	114	10.	„	1140
Bangles	„	66	50.	„	3300
Beads	„	1345	18.	„	24210
Brass Leaf	„	231	45.	„	10395
Bricks	No.	100000	5.	Mil	500
Camphor	Chests	863	33.	Chests	28479
Capoor Cutchery	„	78	6.	„	468
Cassia	„	11675	5.	„	58375
China Ware	—	—	—	Value	16346
Root	Pls.	665	3.50	Pecul	2328
Cochineal	„	153	180.	„	27540
Copper	„	11	20.	„	220
do. White	Boxes	49	50.	Box	2450
do. Ware	—	—	—	Value	830
Corals, false	Chests	124	40.	Chests	4960
Cotton Yarn	Pls.	5643	40.	Pecul	225720
Crackers	Boxes	3762	4.	Box	15048
Galangal	Pls.	266	3.50	Pecul	931
Ganze	—	—	—	Value	300
Gold Ware	—	—	—	„	4450
Grass Cloth	—	—	—	„	4120
Gum Benjamin	Chts.	38	40.	Chest	1520
Hartall	Pls.	612	14.	Pecul	8568
Hats	Boxes	56	50.	Box	2800
Ivory Wire	—	—	—	Value	2200
Kittisalls	Chts.	2007	11.	Cht.	22077
do. Silk	„	61	13.	„	793
Lacquered Ware	—	—	—	Value	3630
Marble Slabs	Boxes	3856	5.	Box	19280
Matting	—	—	—	Value	4532
Musk	—	—	—	„	17600
Nankeens	—	—	—	„	108718
Oils Spice	Pls.	78	30.	Pecul	2340
Paper, White	Chests	2338	13.	Chest	30394
Colored	„	237	12.	„	2844
Gilt	„	287	15.	„	4305
Cards	„	19	30.	„	570
Pearls false	—	—	—	Value	13991
seed	—	—	—	„	105
Preserves	Boxes	1050	4.	Box	4200
Rhubarb	Pls.	922	58.	Pecul	53476
Silk, Canton &c.	„	6635	T.200.	„	1843056
Nankin	„	13762	455.	„	6261710
Piece Goods	—	—	—	Value	338212
Silver Ware	—	—	—	„	4645
Sugar	Pls.	63803	T. 5.2	Pecul	460800
					$9,733,769

EXPORTS, CONTINUED.		Quantity.	Average Price.	Per	TOT. VAL. *Sp. Drs.*
					$9,733,769
Sugar Candy	Pls.	31377	T. 7.	Pecul	305054
Sweetmeats	Boxes	1161	$ 4.50	Box	5225
		Pls. T.	Taels		
Tea, Canton Bohea		702 a 14	9828.		
Fokien do.		447 a 16	7152.		
Congo		183509a32	5872288.		
Caper		5094 a 26	132444.		
Souchong		19100 a 50	955000.		
Campoi		287 a 30	8610.		
Ankoi		1274 a 21	26754.		
Hongmuey		3989 a 32	127648.		
Pekoe		2952 a 71	209592.		
Orange Pekoe		7088 a 31	219728.		
Black		224442 Pls.	7569044.	=	10512562
Hyson		19923 a 61	1215303.		
Young Hyson		5118 a 38	194484.		
Hyson Skin		12613 a 26	327938.		
Twankay		31448 a 29	911992.		
Gunpowder		4587 a 58	266046.		
Imperial		3149 a 55	173195.		
Green		76838	3988958.	=	4290220
Not specified		6925 a 34	235450.	=	327013
Tiles	No.	21600	10.	Mil.	216
Tobacco	Pls.	400	25.	Pecul	10000
Trunks	Sets	329	22.	Set	7238
Umbrellas	Chests	200	20.	Chest	4000
Velvet	Boxes	119	70.	Box	8330
Vermillion	„	1096	63.	„	69048
Sundries	—	—	—	Value	62615
Treasure, Gold	Taels	43919	23.50.	Tael	1032096
Sycee	—	2058754	5. per cent	Prem.	3002350
Dollars, Spanish	—	—	—	—	728395
South American		68304	3. per cent	Dct.	66255
					30,168,380

AVERAGE DISBURSEMENTS.

On 77 Vessels at Whampoa		$ 6000 each	462,000	
38 do.	do. with rice	1500	57,000	
56 do.	Lintin	750	42,000	561,000
Balance				4,171,282
			Spanish Dollars.	34,900,662

STATEMENT OF TRADE IN AMERICAN VESSELS AT CANTON.

Imports.		Quantity.	Average Price.	Per	Tot. val. *Sp. Drs.*
Broad Cloth	Yds.	263344	1.20	Yard	316013
Camlets	Pce.	5042	25.	Piece	126050
Long Ells	„	34472	9.	„	310248
Bombazettes	„	6344	11.	„	69784
Woollen Yarn	Pls.	76	100.	Pecul	7600
Blankets	Pairs	1251	4.	Pair	5004
Cotton Yarn	Pls.	4232	40.	Pecul	169280
Long Cloth	Yds.	3605826	.12½	Yard	450728
Do. Dyed	„	391117	.14	„	54756
Domestics	„	489520	.10	„	48952
Handkerchiefs	Doz.	20783	1.50	Dozen	31173
Chintz	Yds.	194964	.12½	Yard	24370
Cambrics	„	3000	.12⅓	„	375
Velveteens	„	4400	.20	„	880
Linen	„	5726	1.	„	5726
Canvas	Bolts	420	12.	Bolt	5040
Ginseng	Pls.	1509	60.	Pecul	90540
Cochineal	„	132	180.	„	23760
Quicksilver	„	501	115.	„	57615
Tin	„	834	19.	„	15846
Spelter	„	3049	5.50	„	16770
Lead	„	9946	6.	„	59676
Iron	„	3490	3.	„	10470
Copper	„	2288	20.	„	45760
Betel Nut	„	2005	3.	„	6015
Cloves	„	122	28.	„	3416
Mother of Pearl Shells	„	449	4.	„	1796
Nutmegs	„	39	120.	„	4680
Opium, Benares	Chests	5	683.	Chest	3415
Turkey	Pls.	446	611.	Pecul	272506
Pepper	„	2292	8.	„	18336
Rattans	„	3781	3.	„	11343
Rice	„	577578	1.50	„	866367
Skins, Beaver	No.	1465	4.	Each	5860
Fox	„	1198	1.20	„	1438
Land Otter	„	6773	6.	„	40638
Sea Otter	„	560	40.	„	22400
do. Tails	„	310	4.	„	1240
Musk-rat	„	410	1.	„	410
Sundries	—	—	—	Value	8450
Treasure, Dollars	—	—	—	„	428485
Plata Pina	—	—	—	„	35485
					3,678,696
Balance					4,524,173
				Spanish Dollars	8,202,869

EXPORTS.		Quantity.	Average Price.	Per	TOT. VAL. *Sp. Drs.*
		Pls. T.	Taels		
Tea, Bohea - Chests	2183	1266 a 11	13926.		
Souchong - „	29139	17483 a 20	349660.		
Pouchong - „	4644	2322 a 25	58050.		
Pekoe - - „	1604	802 a 30	24060.		
Black „	37570	Pls. 21873	T.445696	=	619022
		Pls.	Taels		
Hyson - - „	19986	9993 a 45	449685.		
Young Hyson - „	93056	63278 a 28	1771784.		
Hyson Skin - „	24557	12524 a 22	275528.		
Twankay - „	5211	3181 a 28	89068.		
Gunpowder - „	9373	7790 a 50	389500.		
Imperial - - „	8051	5722 a 47	268934.		
Green „	160234	Pls.102488	3244499.	=	4506248
Total Chests.	197804	Pls.124361	3690195.	=	5125270
PIECE GOODS.					
Crape Shawls - -	No.	38962	$2.	Each	77924
Do. Do. embrd.	„	44017	5.		220085
Do. Do. damasked	„	40150	2.	„	80300
Levantine Do. -	„	4360	3.	„	13080
Crape Scarfs - -	„	17549	2.	„	35098
Damasked Do. - -	„	7950	.90	„	7155
Black Handkerchiefs	Pcs.	41629	4.75	Piece	197738
Pongee Do. - -	„	36310	7.	„	254170
Sarsnet Do. - -	„	1791	5.50	„	9850
Lutestring Do. -	„	100	10.	„	1000
Levantine Do. -	„	48	10.	„	480
Crapes - - -	„	1282	8.	„	10256
Senshaws - -	„	11814	10.25	„	121093
Do. Black -	„	475	10.25	„	4869
Sarsnets Do. -	„	8242	7.50	„	61815
White -	„	3014	16.	„	48224
Common -	„	3166	13.50	„	42741
Coloured -	„	1719	12.	„	20628
Levantines - -	„	2332	9.	„	20988
Satin -	„	2572	14.	„	36008
Satins - - -	„	6582	15.	„	98730
Coloured -	„	1250	18.50	„	23125
Damasked	„	1031	20.	„	20620
Camlets - -	„	1254	10.	„	12540
Pongees White -	„	40154	11.	„	441694
Szechuen -	„	22267	4.50	„	100202
Lutestrings - -	„	1476	8.	„	11808
Do. mixed -	„	499	7.	„	3493
Meenchow - -	„	200	4.25	„	850
					$2,501,184

Exports, continued.		Quantity.	Average Price.	Per	tot. val. *Sp. Drs.*
					2,501,184
Concan	„	225	9.	Piece	2025
Figured Silk	„	290	20.	„	5800
Silk Dresses	No.	100	15.	Each	1500
Taffeta	Pcs.	592	34.50	Piece	20424
Grass Cloth	„	12330	8.	„	98640
Do. Handkerchiefs	„	1325	4.	„	5300
Gauze	„	2525	4.	„	10100
Nankins, Blue	„	44956	.65	„	29221
Yellow	„	4950	.70	„	3465
Sewing Silk	Pls.	410	450.	Pecul	184500
Raw Silk	„	125	400.	„	50000
Miscellaneous.					
Alum	Pls.	10	2.50	„	25
Anniseed	„	20	10.	„	200
Baskets	„	—	—	Value	120
Camphor	„	1980	35.	Pecul	69300
Cassia	„	5800	10.50	„	60900
Do. Buds	„	30	14.	„	420
China Ink	Catties	231	1,	Catty	231
Ware	„			Value	32179
Crackers	Boxes	21700	1.	Box	21700
Dragon's Blood	Pls.	6	60.	Pecul	360
Fans & Fire Screens	No.	161143	. 1½	Each	2417
Feather Fans	„	2200	.40	„	880
Galangal	Pls.	127	3.50	Pecul	445
Gamboge	„	13	55.	„	715
Ivory Ware	—	—	—	Value	5528
Lacquered Ware	—	—	—	„	5929
Matting	Rolls	26342	4.	Each	105368
Mats, Bamboo	—			Value	33
M. O'Pearl Buttons	Gross	184300	.10	Gross	18430
Slabs	—	—	—	Value	50
Paper	Pls.	10	20.	Pecul	200
Rattans, Split	„	100	20.	„	2000
Rhubarb	„	95	40.	„	3800
Spice Oils	„	173	120.	„	20760
Sugar	„	15469	8.	„	123752
Sugar Candy	„	40	7.	„	280
Sweetmeats	„	2225	14.	„	31150
Trunks	Sets	157	23.	Set	3611
Sundries	—	—	—	Value	2287
					8,025,869

Average disbursements.

11 Ships at	Whampoa	6000 =	66.000	
63 do.	do. with rice	1500 =	94.500	
22 do.	Lintin	750 =	16.500	177,000
			Spanish Dollars.	8,202,869

ART. VI. *Missionary travels in China and Chinese Tartary, by the bishop of Corea. From Annales de la Propagation de la Foi. No. L.*

[Not having access to the original of these travels, we have borrowed the following article from the [London] Athenæum, for Feb. 25th, 1837. In our number for August, 1836, (vol. 5, p. 147,) there is a notice of "the bishop of Corea, who left Penang on his mission to that country in 1832." It appears, consequently, that two bishops were at the same time, by different routes, on their way to Corea. We give the article from the Athenæum entire.]

THE late bishop of Capsa, Mr. Bruguiere, having been appointed vicar apostolic and head of the Catholic mission in Corea, traversed the most important parts of the Chinese empire to reach his destination. The journal of his travels has just been published in the work before us — a periodical designed as a continuation of the celebrated 'Lettres Edifiantes.' Having recently noticed the voyages of a Protestant missionary to the Corean peninsula, we shall, without further preface, proceed to cull the additional information respecting China and its dependencies, supplied by the Catholic prelate. We must premise that Mr. Bruguiere's title was the only profit he derived from his bishopric; and that want of money compelled him to travel more like a mendiçant than a vicar apostolic. Unable even to pay for the comforts of a European vessel, he was forced to become a passenger on board the Chinese junks; and he has given some curious details of the system of navigation practised on board these vessels. But we must first hear his report of Manila, the capital of the Philippine islands — a city once earnestly coveted by our countrymen, but whose name has now almost fallen into oblivion. * * * The bishop says, that the people of Manila are devotedly attached to Catholicism; and he attributes their adherence to Spain to the strength of their religious feelings: he confesses, however, that there are some partisans of innovation even in the Philippine islands. There are three millions of Catholic Indians in the island of Luzon; but paganism is still the religion of the mountain tribes, who are said to regard Christianity as a badge of servitude. The archbishop of Manila lent our missionary a sum sufficient to pay his passage to Macao. Soon after his arrival at this port he embarked on board a Chinese junk for Fuhgan, the residence of the vicar apostolic for the province of Fuhkeën; and this voyage, of scarcely two hundred leagues in length, was more than two months in duration. The causes of this delay were the ignorance and timidity of the Chinese sailors. The bishop says,—

We remained at anchor from the 19th to the 26th (of December, 1832); and like delays happened frequently. The captain declared that the wind was contrary; they wanted a southerly wind, and the northeasterly monsoon had just commenced. The Chinese do not know how to beat up against a contrary wind: the clumsy build of their ships, and the fear that they have of

losing their reckoning, never allow them to take a bold offing; they always keep the land in sight; and this makes their navigation long and dangerous. They have a compass, it is true, but they make little use of it; I doubt if they are even acquainted with its variations. On the 26th we at length proceeded, but cast anchor after four hours' sailing, because the captain found the weather very cold, yet we had not passed the 22d degree of latitude. Similar reasons detained us two months and a half on our voyage. The wind, the rain, the tide, the fear of pirates, interrupted our navigation. Every night we sought shelter in some creek under the cannon of some fort, if such a name may be given to a ruinous building defended only by an old mandarin and his domestics. Under most of these forts an armed bark was stationed, to protect the junks from the assault of the pirates, who infest these seas in the eleventh and twelfth months. On the 28th several pirate barks, well armed, attacked us. They commenced by seizing two small junks which were a little in advance of our squadron. As the sailors made no resistance, the buccaneers only stripped them stark naked, offering no violence to their persons.... Our turn came next; our captain hung out a signal of distress, and hailed the neighboring barks, six of them united and formed a line; the crews only supplied a contingent of one hundred and forty men without arms; the pirates were more than three hundred in number, well armed; for in China it is forbidden to have weapons on board merchant ships, under severe penalties; and pirates alone dispense with this law. God had pity on us, the pirates retired without venturing an attack.

Having escaped all the dangers from lubberly sailors and cowardly pirates, the bishop at length reached Fuhgan. He thus describes the surrounding country:—

The district of Fuhgan is a country covered with hills and mountains of moderate size, some of which are clothed with dwarf pines, and the tea shrub. This precious shrub is chiefly produced in the province of Fuhkeën. Generally speaking, the mountains of China, and a great part of Tartary, are bare and sterile. It is only by great patience and labor that the inhabitants can render them productive in some places; they have generally a barren and melancholy aspect.

From Fuhgan the bishop proceeded to Nanking: he praises highly the fertility and beauty of the province of Keängnan, and incidentally informs us that the negligence of the Chinese fiscal authorities affords the greatest possible facilities to smugglers; but that Europeans are objects of hatred and suspicion, not only to the government, but to the people. The bishop assumed the disguise of a native, and he gives a melancholy account of the difficulties he had to encounter in accommodating himself to the Chinese usages, and the dangers of detection arising from the slightest deviation; even the native Christians, dreading that his presence might be made a pretext for persecution, tried to force him to return. Though his health was broken, his money almost gone, and his guides dispirited, the bishop persevered, and pursued his route towards Tartary, sometimes in one of the rude vehicles of the country, but most frequently on foot. One of his adventures is characteristic of the social state of China. Disguised as a mandarin, he passed in a chariot the barriers of the province of Shanse.

We met some convicts, whom they were leading into exile, bound together by a long chain; when they saw us, the troops that conducted them sate

down upon the ground, one soldier alone holding the end of the chain. Immediately a dispute arose between the convicts and my followers. "We want money," shouted the malefactors. "You shall have none," replied my guides. "We will allow ourselves to be crushed by your chariot wheels," exclaimed the wretches, throwing themselves down in the middle of the road. "Clear the way," shouted the driver. "We will not—give us money, or we will die here." From words they came to blows; my people dragged them by the chain from under the chariot, not without receiving some smart blows. My guide gave a vigorous pull, and remained master of the field of battle. Unfortunately the convicts had their wives with them, and these ladies took their place and renewed the combat. In this country, to lay hands on a female, even in self-defence, is an affair of state. It was necessary, therefore, to have recourse to prayers and compliments. My interpreter, who was very polite, made them an eloquent harangue, but nothing could shake their purpose. They placed themselves under the feet of the horses, and declared they would not stir without money. We were forced to negociate, and purchase a free passage for about six francs. We might have had recourse to a mandarin, but the accusation would have exposed me to the imminent hazard of discovery. The soldiers looked as if they had no concern whatever in this singular combat; instead of checking the insolence of their prisoners, they remained tranquil spectators, doubtless expecting their share of the spoil. In some districts of China they rob openly, but rarely commit murder. Within thirty leagues of Peking, there has been for some years a society of robbers: they plunder publicly, and in the face of day. The magistrates who ought to watch over the public safety favor this disorder, and share in the spoil.

After wandering about for some months in continual fear of detection, the bishop was informed that he might obtain a safe asylum in Chinese Tartary, until the Coreans were prepared for his reception. The Great Wall of China is no longer an impassable barrier between Tartary and the Celestial Empire: smugglers pass openly through its crumbling breaches; and though the gates are still guarded, the warders are remarkable for anything rather than vigilance. The account which our author gives of this celebrated structure, corrects the extravagant descriptions of previous writers:—

On the 7th of October, 1834, we arrived at the Great Wall, so highly extolled by those who know nothing about it, and so emphatically described by those who have never seen it. This and the other wonders of China should only be seen in pictures to maintain their reputation. The Great Wall has nothing remarkable, but its length, which is about fifteen hundred miles: its principal direction is from east to west; but a little to the north of Shanse it trends to the west-south-west. This rampart, formerly covered with bricks, which have tumbled down, forms the frontier of three or four provinces, each of which would, in Europe, be a considerable kingdom. In the plains and ravines it is a regular wall fenced with battlements, between thirty and forty feet high; on the mountains, I doubt if its height exceeds ten feet; indeed, on the heights, it is little more than a ridge of earth, flanked by numerous projections like redoubts, but there is no person to guard them. There are gates at regular intervals for the convenience of travelers and the levy of transit-duties . . . I passed through the gate called Chan Tchakŭ (Changkeä kow), it is that through which the Russians go on their road to Peking. No one paid the least attention to me; the guards turned their backs, as if to give courage to me and my followers. Were a more rigorous watch kept, it would be easy to cross the wall in the mountains, or through the breaches which time has made.

The bishop chose for his residence the village of Sivang (Sewang), in Tartary, which is chiefly inhabited by native Christians. Though the latitude is not more than 41° north, he found the climate more cold than that of Poland. On one occasion he states—

I celebrated mass in a little chapel crowded with people. There were two chafing-dishes beside the altar; the wine was kept in a vessel of warm water; but notwithstanding these precautions, it was with difficulty I kept the sacred elements from freezing.

The soil is poor, harvests frequently fail, and famines are common:—

Hemp is the plant which best repays the cultivator: it attains the height of seven or eight feet, and sometimes more. Within the last few years potatoes have been introduced from Russia; they thrive very well, and yield a good produce.

So that the roots which sir Walter Raleigh planted in his garden at Youghal, have nearly made the circuit of the globe. The influence of cultivation on climate is strongly marked at Sivang:—

The part of Tartary in which Sivang is placed, has only been cultivated within the last ninety years. Great as the cold is now, it is less than it formerly was; for they raise grain that would not have grown here thirty years ago. The effects of tillage in improving the climate, were observed by the Greeks in Thrace, and the Romans in Gaul; at Sivang they are within the experience of the present generation.

We have had no good account of Tartary since Rubruquis was sent to make a treaty with the khan Sartash, by St. Louis, in the thirteenth century. The bishop hints that he meditated preparing a full description of this remote country; and on this account his notices of the customs and manners are unfortunately meagre and desultory:—

The two castes of Tartars (Mantchous and Mongols) profess Lamaism. The Mongols are a filthy race; they wipe their filthy hands dripping with grease in their cloaks, to show that they can afford to eat meat. When a Mongol Tartar wishes to compliment his host or guest, he takes a huge bone, and gnaws it all round, and then hands it to his friend, who gnaws it in turn. At the end of the repast, the Tartar guest wipes his fingers in his host's robe, drawing a streak of grease from his head to his heel; and politeness requires the host to reciprocate this delicate attention.

Lamaism is a variety of Budhism—perhaps the most prevalent creed in the world. The account given of it by the bishop of Capsa adds little to our previous information. The chief novelty he communicates is, that the monastic institutions of the Lamas, for both sexes, are more rigid in their rules of celibacy than those of the Chinese and Burmese. The similarity between the ecclesiastical discipline of Lamaism and the Papacy, gave rise to the belief in the Christian kingdom of Prester John, described in such extravagant terms by the writers of the middle ages. Our author, however, seems very reluctant to admit this simple explanation, and suggests that the Christians might have been extirpated by Genghis khan. But that conqueror was not a persecutor; he had several Nestorians in his service; and many

Nestorian Christians were found in Tartary by the embassadors of St. Louis.

While the bishop remained at Sivang, the viceroy, alarmed by the excesses of the Chinese sectaries called Pihleënkeaou, (worshipers of the flower of the Nymphæa,) ordered a severe inquisition of those suspected of professing Christianity, apparently believing that there was some connexion between the two religions. The poor bishop was exposed to great dangers, but was preserved by the friendship of some mandarins, who did not share the error of their superiors. As we have mentioned the name of the secret society, which will probably at no distant date change the constitution of the celestial empire, it will not be uninteresting to give some account of so formidable a body, supplying the defects of the bishop's description from other sources.

Since the conquest of China by the Mantchou Tartars, two centuries ago, a large party has existed, anxious to restore the ancient line of native sovereigns: the members, being closely watched by the imperial government, formed a secret society, similar to that of the freemasons, but ruled and organized like the Jesuits, from one of whom, indeed, it has been said that the plan of the institution was obtained. The society soon extended its ramifications into every part of the empire; and its members are supposed to amount to several millions; they are united by the most solemn oaths of secrecy and mutual assistance; they have signs and pass-words known only to themselves; they have a common purse to meet the exigencies of the order; and they are remarkable for their implicit obedience to the commands of their unknown superior. In the year 1794, they made a vigorous effort to overthrow the reigning dynasty, and their ravages were not suppressed until 1802. Occasional revolts have occured since; but the Pihleënkeaou have conducted their operations so cautiously, that all the efforts of the imperial ministers have failed to discover their leaders. The connection, real or supposed, between this secret society and the Jesuits, was the cause of the cruel persecution of the Chinese Christians, at the commencement of the present century.

Having escaped from the dangers of persecution, the bishop began his perilous journey to Corea; and he had nearly reached the frontiers of that country, when he fell a victim to famine and fatigue. The continuation of his journal, after his departure from Sivang, has not been received by his brethren, and there is no account given of his notes.

The general impression produced by the bishop's narrative is, that the Chinese have retrograded in civilization under the Tartars; and that the government is in a state of deplorable and increasing weakness. It is manifest that the people have ceased to respect laws which are openly contemned by public functionaries: the bishop was once mistaken for an English smuggler of opium; his interpreter being absent, he could not explain the error; but a bribe of a few pence was sufficient to put an end to all disquietude. Christianity, though proscribed, is openly professed; and persecutions occur only

when an avaricious governor wants a pretext to extort money. Piracy and smuggling are acknowledged trades, and the mandarins are quieted by a share of the profits. There is every reason to hope that the tea trade will not long be confined to Canton; the inhabitants of Fuhkeën, the province in which the shrub grows, are described by our author as the most enterprising smugglers and sailors in China; and in the present disorganized state of the government, they would not be deterred from a profitable traffic by mere fiscal regulations. Though the state of the Catholic Christians in China engaged a considerable share of the bishop's attention, we regret that his account of them is a tissue of vague generalities: he does not supply any data for estimating their number; and from his dwelling very minutely on a few instances of conversion, we are led to conclude that they are of rare occurrence.

Art. VII. *Memorial from the chief provincial authorities, desiring to limit the number of the hong merchants to thirteen. Dated Canton, September,* 1837.

A respectful memorial, the sacred perusal of which is solicited, in relation to the merchants engaged in foreign trade, showing that they are now sufficiently numerous for the transaction of business, and requesting that the old regulations in regard to the appointment of such merchants be restored, with the view of clearly laying down a limit, and of arresting wide-spreading evils.

Our humble opinion is, that, the port of Canton being open to a general commerce with foreigners, it is of the first importance, that the hong merchants, by whom the trade is conducted, should be proper men; in which case alone can the cherishing kindness of the throne be seconded. To enable the ship-traveled people to be, universally, recipients of joy and advantage, and to prevent smuggling and enrich the revenue, depend wholly upon them. Their relation to the affairs of the customs is not then at all trivial.

Formerly the hongs engaged in foreign trade were in all thirteen; but in length of days negligence having arisen, some among them became, in consequence, defaulters to the revenue, and fell into debt, on which account they absconded, or were subjected to punishment. Hence in the 11th year of Keäking (1806), the then superintendent of customs, Tihking, presented a memorial, wherein he requested that a senior merchant should be appointed to regulate all the affairs of the hongs; and that, in future, whenever a new merchant should be chosen, the senior and all the hong merchants should jointly bind themselves, by signing a security, for him. In answer to this memorial the following imperial edict was received:

"Tihking has presented a report of the results of his investigations of the state of the custom-house. The merchants engaged in foreign trade, in Canton, who enter into security for the payment of the duties, have hitherto been admitted to fill their places, upon the security of only one or two merchants being given for them. Then, when involved in distresses and reduced in circumstances, they have either become defaulters, or have fallen into debt and absconded; and thus, much evil and many illegalities have resulted. Let it be as the said superintendent of customs has requested. Let a careful selection be made, from among all the hong merchants, of one or two individuals, of wealthy and substantial connections, and of honest and sterling character, and let them be appointed to the general management of the affairs of the hongs engaged in foreign trade, to lead and direct all the other hong merchants, and with equity and justice to amend what is wrong: and let the names of the senior merchants thus selected be recorded in the public offices, and reported to the Board. Whenever a new merchant is to be chosen to fill up a vacant place, let the whole body of the hong merchants, seniors and others, enter into a joint and general suretiship for him, and let the matter be communicated, in a distinct form, to the Board. If any one be expelled or retire, let it be reported, that whatever relates to him may be erased. And every year, on the day when the custom-house is closed, let a complete list of the hong merchants' names be made, and presented to the Board, for examination and reference. Let the Board of Revenue be made acquainted with these directions. Respect this."

Afterwards, in the ninth year of Taoukwang (1829), the then superintendent of customs, Yenlung, finding that none would come forward as hong merchants, and fearing that the senior merchants, having the responsibility of the suretiship, purposely made hindrances and objections, recommended for establishment some new and altered regulations, which having been laid before the throne, the following imperial edict was received:

"Yenlung has laid before us a memorial, requesting a change in the regulations in reference to the bringing in of new merchants. In the province of Kwangtung, hongs are established for carrying on foreign trade. Formerly, a man was allowed to become a hong merchant, on obtaining the security of one or two of their number: but in the reign of Keäking, permission was given to appoint senior merchants to conduct the general affairs, and to require of any one, being chosen as a new merchant, that he should have the jointly-signed security of the senior and all the other merchants. These senior merchants have continually been in the practice of purposely making objections, so that the new merchants are too few to complete the regulated numbers; and it is difficult to get the vacant numbers filled up. Hence, for several years past, while the foreign ships have been daily increasing in number, the number of hongs has been constantly diminishing; so that it is difficult for them to give due attention to all things, and illegalities rapidly spring up. It is certainly right, taking these things into consideration, to make a change. Let it be as is requested. Hereafter, if a man in opulent circumstances and of good connections prefer a request to be made hong merchant, and the superintendent of customs find that what he states of himself is correct, let him be put on trial for one or two years; and if he then be found really correct and upright in his dealings, and possessing the confidence of the foreign merchants, and have paid up all the duties without defalcation, let him, according to the old regulations, obtain the security of one or two hong merchants, and on so doing receive his appointment. Let the rule, that the joint security of the senior and all the other merchants is to be procured, be forthwith annulled. Respect this."

These directions were respectfully recorded and obeyed; and from that time onwards, merchants have successively come forward to supply vacancies, so that the full number of thirteen hongs, formerly existing, is now again complete; and there is no cause for anxiety on the ground of there not being enough to pay due attention to business; among these, is Pwan Wanhae, of the new hong Jinho, who has been on trial seven years, and, though frequently urged to it, has never yet obtained securities, nor in consequence been reported to the Board; also, Yeih Yuenchang of the new hong Footae, Lo Futae of the new hong Tungchang, with Yung Yewkwang of the new hong Anchang — not yet entered on the list presented to the Board, who have been on trial from upwards of one, to about two, years. These persons we have commanded, in obedience to the last-established regulations, speedily to obtain the true and faithful securities of one or two merchants, that their names may be reported to the Board, and they be duly appointed, in order to give weight to the principle of responsibility; and for doing this, we have limited them to a period of one month. If the period pass over, without their obtaining a merchant to give securities for them, we will immediately communicate with each other, and erase their names, at the same time making inquiry if there are any transactions commenced by them during their period of trial, and yet unfinished, and in that case strictly urging the completion thereof, under governmental inspection.

In making regulations, however, the first and most important thing is, to ascertain what is most suitable; and in establishing laws, it is desirable to adopt such as may long continue unchanged. The new regulations, sanctioned on the representation of Yenlung, and now in force, we, your majesty's ministers, have found, after diligent and faithful examination, and joint discussion, to have been suited to the past, but to be unsuitable to the present state of things; and to have given rise to evils, which result in impeding their operation and rendering them ineffective. The full number of hongs engaged in foreign trade at Canton has, for a very long period, been thirteen: and even when the vessels have been numerous, and the amount of duties large, there has never been any anxiety in regard to their being unable to attend to all their concerns. But Yenlung, seeing that the hongs were weakened and reduced to half their number, and impelled by this temporary state of circumstances, effected the alteration — that any opulent person, applying of his own accord to become hong merchant, if his representations be found on inquiry to be true, should be permitted to enter on a course of trial. But what limit ought to be prescribed was not once made a subject of consideration. Thus the common people, striving together for gain, and snatching every opportunity — the appointments may go on gradually and endlessly increasing. Then the merchants being numerous, their characters must be various and often not free from alloy. In this way, it must indeed become difficult to pay due attention to all affairs.

During upwards of ten years past, silver bullion has been exported, and the poisonous opium has been spread throughout the

empire, giving rise to a crowd of illegalities—smuggling contraband articles, and evading the lawful duties. While in this we see scoundrels who are *without*, entering into compact to do evil, it would be difficult to ensure that the contamination does not actually commence *within*. Thus, in the third month of the present year, a criminal, Leäng Ake, was apprehended as a smuggler; and on his trial there appeared a letter, from the hong merchant Lo Futae to an escaped criminal Ching Yungping, wherein allusion was made to Lo Heaoufung, naval captain in the department of Shaouking, as concerned in the establishment of that hong. I, your minister Tăng, in consequence, represented the circumstance against him to your majesty, and received your imperial pleasure to remove from Lo Heaouping his rank, and to bring him to the capital, to be tried. Although the trial of the case has not yet terminated, yet it is already plain that the said merchant, not being affluent, has connected himself with lawless people. If now, when investigation of this subject is being made with the utmost strictness and closest attention, the spread of the evil be not quickly arrested, it is truly to be feared that these illegalities will increase to a very great degree.

Moreover, the plan of placing men on a course of trial was adopted as an important means of selecting good merchants. But how unfathomable is the human mind! How shall it be ascertained, that men are not, during the one or two years of trial, artfully patching up, to save appearances, in order that, after their appointment as merchants, they may pursue their law-subverting plans? Then, when the time has elapsed, and the necessary securities have been obtained, the leak in the patched kettle is, when too late, discovered; though the law pursue such a person, yet how is the loss already suffered to be made up? Hence it is perfectly clear, and beyond a doubt, that the plan of passing through a course of trial is not in the least to be depended on. But the old regulation, sanctioned at the desire of Tihking, that the securities given for a merchant shall consist of a joint bond entered into by all, being agreeable to the common and general sense of justice, how solid and substantial is the security it gives! By the framers of the new regulation, it was found fault with, as giving scope to make objections and present hindrances; and hence they altered it, deciding hastily to sanction an appointment on the surety of one or two merchants. They did not call to mind, that the result of such objections and hindrances—delay—is but the lesser evil: for these one or two merchants, if not his immediate relatives or intimates, are probably induced to secure him by presents; and when suddenly his affairs are upset, the injury that is thereby caused is indeed great.

Furthermore, in all cases of prosecution of these merchants, the property sequestered not sufficing to pay all demands, the whole body of the merchants has been directed to pay them by instalments. This practice has now by long usage become a rule; and, whether standing surety for the defaulter or not, none can in the least degree evade it. But when they have to pay for one whom they did not secure, the payers must indeed find it difficult quietly to submit. Is it not much bet-

ter, that they for whom they pay should be secured by them, by which a remedy will be obtained for careless security, in the caution which each will observe?

Our feeble and obscure views, we, your ministers, would humbly represent to be these:—That, as the number of the hong merchants has been filled up, and there is no deficiency, but the number is sufficient for conducting affairs, a limitation should at once be plainly prescribed: That it is our duty to request, that hereafter, when any of the thirteen hong merchants fails, or is for any cause expelled, or retires, then as each vacancy occurs, permission be given to supply it; but that, except in such case, it be not permitted, without sufficient cause, to add a single merchant to the number: That it is unnecessary to prescribe a period for going through a course of trial, vainly adopting a nominal, but unreal, check; but that, at the time of appointing a merchant, the old rule should be reëstablished, of giving a general security; the whole body of merchants, seniors and others, being required jointly and carefully to select an opulent, honorable, and upright man, and to sign their names together to a bond of security for him,—the whole to be laid in a separate form before the Board of Revenue, that the man may be fully appointed: That not the slightest evasion and hindrance be suffered, so that every monopolizing purpose may be disappointed: That, lastly, in all other respects the former regulations be retained, as the rule according to which all affairs are to be safely conducted. Thus a fixed limit will be laid down; and, it is hoped, the numbers will be properly circumscribed, and not in excess; those who become merchants will bring with them large property, so that there will be something on which the responsibility can rest; and those who secure them will, as a matter of necessity, seek for really and substantially good persons. It may be expected also to be not wanting in advantage, as enriching the revenue, and as tending utterly to put an end to all compacts in wrong-doing. We present our views before the throne, with the desire of reforming the affairs of the custom-house, and unite together in a joint memorial, respectfully awaiting the imperial decision as to their propriety or impropriety; and to this end we humbly solicit our sovereign to cast on them a glance, and to vouchsafe instructions. A respectful memorial.

Art. VIII. *Imperial edict, communicated to the hong merchants from the hoppo, requiring certain foreigners to leave Canton.*

Wán, superintendent of maritime customs in Canton, &c., to the hong merchants, Howqua and others, for their full information. On the 22d of October, I received from the governor and lieut.-governor the annexed communication.

"We received, on the 19th of October, by an express of the Board of War, a dispatch from the Council of state, addressed 'to Tang, governor of Kwangtung and Kwangse, and Ke, lieut.-governor of Kwangtung, to be enjoined also on Wan, superintendent of customs,'—and containing, under date the 29th September, 1837, the following

"Imperial edict. 'A report has been laid before us, representing that, in the province of Kwangtung, remissness and illegalities increase daily; enumerating six particulars; and earnestly requesting that orders may be given for amendment thereof. The memorialist states, that of the multitudinous cases of plundering which occur in that province, the majority are attributable to associated banditti, bearing such names as the Teënte Brotherhood, the Triad Society, &c.; that these club together in bands and fraternities, and are ever and anon injuring and troubling the people; and that every instance of complaint affords occasion for varied and numerous extortions. Again, he states, that the magistrates of districts in that province, when levying the tribute of grain, have sometimes, as it is said, reduced it into money at the extravagant rate of six or seven taels for a *sheih* [about eight or nine dollars for 130 catties]; that they are very lax towards their writers and police, receiving bribes to screen and shelter them. The report then points out that the storing up of grain is a convenience to the people; and that there is nothing better than to establish free granaries, and to hold the grain, furnished to fill them by the people themselves, as a provision for the occasional wants of years of dearth,—a measure alike advantageous to the officers and the people. In regard to governmental cruising vessels, the objects of their establishment are the apprehension of thieves, and the prevention of smuggling: but of late, the report states, the only thing aimed at by them is, to receive from the whole face of the country petty and unlicensed fees; they do not at all apprehend smugglers; and all the stations and posts of the maritime police have gradually come to be mere names, without any effective reality. In the salt department of that province, it is needful to put a stop to all clandestine encroachment; and it is essential, from time to time, to examine thoroughly, and adopt measures for making a full end thereof. With regard to all that relates to tolls and duties, it is still more needful to remove and cut away every evil and illegality. The depraved foreigners residing in Canton, ——— and others, and the receiving ships already at Lintin, should all be forcibly expelled. Let Tang and his colleagues make faithful examination in regard to each of these six subjects spoken of in the memorial, and if there be such illegalities as are named, they must feel it imperative on them to lay aside every consideration of pleasing others, and proceed with truth and fidelity to correct what is wrong. It is our sincere hope that the civil administration, and the military defenses, may all be really and practically useful. In that case all will be right and proper. Let a copy of the original address be sent, and these commands be made known, to Tang, and Ke, and by them enjoined on Wan. Respect this.'

"The council of state having, in obedience to the imperial pleasure, forwarded the above, we the governor and lieut.-governor have received the same. We will proceed accordingly, in distinct documents, to direct inquiry on the several points alluded to in the five clauses, beginning "in the affairs of the police, there must not be any remissness or procrastination allowed:" also, on the subject of the remaining clause, "that, in relation to tolls and duties, all illegalities should be removed, and correctness restored,"—we will forward a communication to the naval commander-in-chief, expressing our hope, that he will immediately drive away and send back to their country the receiving ships anchored in the seas about Lintin and Lantao,—and that he will, after careful consideration, write in answer, and inform us of the line of action adopted by him, to enable us to reply to the throne: we will still further instruct the judicial commissioner, to proceed immediately, in concert with the financial and territorial commissioner, to act in accordance with the instructions contained in our separate dispatches; and, on the several points noticed in the original memorial and in the imperial edict now received, to issue directions that the imperial pleasure may be respectfully obeyed and acted on; at the same time, also, to detail consecutively the measures adopted in reference to each clause, and report the same for our examination, so as to enable us to make our reply to the throne.

"Besides all this, it is our duty to forward to you [the hoppo] this communication, for your examination. We trust you will immediately command the hong merchants to expel with severity those depraved foreigners, ——— and others, residing in Canton; also, that you will examine and discover if any of your attendant officers have indeed sold to depraved natives the information of warrants being out against them, thus enabling them to procure others to take their place, and so giving rise to gross illegalities; furthermore, whether the number of officers deputed to act in the custom-houses of Canton and Macao should or should not be reduced. We hope that you will grant us a reply, that we may perform what is required of us; and that, as regards the other particulars of the memorial and imperial edict, you will act with respectful obedience, and enforce what is required. Annexed is a copy of the original memorial."

The above communication having reached me the hoppo, I, on the receipt of it, proceed to issue this order, to give information. When the order reaches the said merchants, let them immediately pay obedience to it, by instituting inquiry concerning each of the foreigners unlawfully residing in Canton, namely ———, ———, ———, and ———, and by speedily, and with severity, expelling them. They must not allow them to linger for an instant. Let them also with the utmost speed report the period of the said foreigners' departure for Macao, to enable a reply to be made to the throne. This is an affair in which the imperial pleasure has been received, requiring examination. The said merchants must, therefore, by all means, act in obedience to it. If they dare to connive and screen the foreigners, they themselves shall be held solely responsible. Let each, then, tremblingly obey. Oppose not. A special order. October 25th, 1837.

ART. IX. *Plan proposed for importing Chinese mechanics and laborers from Singapore to New South Wales.* By G. F. Davidson.

THE plan proposed by the undersigned for the importation of Chinese laborers and mechanics, having met with very considerable success, he is now induced to publish it in full, for the information of those distant settlers, who may not have had an opportunity of perusing it at either of the Sydney banks. My plan is to write to Singapore, in the early part of August, for four or five hundred Chinese, to be hired from the annual supply by the junks from various ports in China, which arrive there in December and January in large numbers, and may be hired for this or any other country with very little trouble. With my order to hire the men, I mean to send a ship from hence to bring them to Sydney; or, if a vessel cannot be had here on fair terms, my agent in Singapore shall have the necessary orders on that subject. From each subscriber I will require an advance of £5 for every Chinaman to be brought to him. This sum is to be expended in paying ten dollars (that being the amount due to the junk by each emigrant on board) for passage money from China, in food and clothing for the voyage to this port, and other contingent charges at Singapore. On the arrival of the men in Sydney, I would deliver each subscriber his number, and require from him immediate payment of whatever balance might be due me over and above the advance of £5 per man already mentioned. For the satisfaction of subscribers, I would, on the arrival of the vessel in Sydney, make out an account of the whole expenses of the undertaking, such account to be deposited in some public office for the perusal of those concerned.

From a calculation I have made, I feel convinced I can land the men in Sydney at £10 a head, say £11, and add £1 for commission to my Singapore agent; for this the men would serve twelve months after their arrival in the colony, getting fed of course, and they would serve a second year for £1 per month and rations; after the second year they would expect wages something nearly equal to what free Europeans get here. I would not begin with fewer than four hundred men, as it would require that number to fill a ship, and make it worth while. As many more as I can get subscribers for, will be obtained, and I have no objections to contract for an annual supply. From my long experience amongst Chinese, I have no hesitation in recommending strongly to the settlers of New South Wales, the importation of them into this country; as carpenters, cabinet-makers, wheelwrights, millers, blacksmiths, bricklayers and brickmakers, gardeners, cooks, growers of maize, sugar, and tobacco, and general laborers, I can with perfect safety recommend them. As shepherds, I doubt whether they would answer.

For several years past, I have not seen less than six or eight thousand Chinese brought to Singapore in the months of December and

January, and have invariably seen them willing to go anywhere with those who paid their debt to the junk they came in; they leave their country so very poor, that a fair prospect of plenty to eat, will induce them to go anywhere. From what I have seen on board the junks, I should say that 20 per cent. of the men brought here will be mechanics, perhaps more, but I cannot bind myself on that head. It will, of course, be my duty to bring the number of each trade required, as near as I can, and in the event of a deficiency in any particular trade, I would recommend the drawing of lots for a priority of choice. As to the distribution of the laborers, I must let them go in parties; were I to allow drawing of lots for them, a son might be separated from a father, a brother from a brother, and so on, which would tend very much to render the men discontented. Supposing 20 per cent. of the men prove to be mechanics, a subscriber for ten will have a claim for two tradesmen, for five men one tradesman, and so on, any number under five will not give a claim to a tradesman, unless more than twenty in the hundred should prove such. In case of loss by shipwreck, I propose taking out a policy of insurance, to cover the sum advanced by the subscribers, previous to my dispatches leaving this. Any subscriber failing to make the necessary advance will, of course, forfeit his men.

Rice being the principal article of a Chinaman's food, I would recommend the importation of fifteen hundred or two thousand bags in the ship, the men came in; it might be landed here at three halfpence per pound, and would go as far as flour in rationing the men.

It seems to be a prevailing opinion that the Chinese will not remain with their masters after their arrival here, of this I have very little fear. After the expiration of two or three years, numbers of them will, no doubt, wish to return to China, which I consider will tend to induce many more to come here the following year, particularly if those who go carry accounts of good treatment, &c., with them. Chinese emigrants never bring their wives and families from their native country; but this does not prevent their remaining many years in those countries where they find constant and profitable employment. If they get £15 a year and rations, it will be double what they earn in and about Singapore, and, in my opinion, will be sufficient to keep up a constant supply of Chinese laborers in this market. On the subject of ill-treatment, I would caution the settlers of New South Wales; a Chinese will not put up with it, and will spread such reports about it, as will tend to prevent future supplies reaching this part of the world.

(Signed) G. F. Davidson.

Sydney, June 15th, 1837.

[*Note.* The foregoing appears as an advertisement in the Sydney Herald of June 19th, 1837. In a postscript, Mr. Davidson gives a list of the subscribers which he had already obtained, amounting to fifty-seven, requiring 335 Chinese. Mr Davidson says, the advance of £5 per annum, is to be paid in to the commercial bank, Sydney, on or before the first of August next (1837), in order to give time for the men to be there by March, 1838.]

ART. X. *Correspondence between the Committee of the East India and China Association and the government of Great Britain.*

By late arrivals from England, we are glad to learn that China and its inhabitants, and the interests of foreigners here, are not forgotten. In a speech before one of the public assemblies held last May, in London, the Rev. Mr. Medhurst announced that medical missionaries for the Chinese would accompany him on his return to the east. Mr. Medhurst expects also to bring out with him a steam-press. The British parliament was again directing its attention to China. A bill, authorizing the establishment of a court or courts, with criminal and admiralty and civil jurisdiction, was brought before parliament in June, by lord Palmerston. On this subject, and respecting the appointment of consuls and an embassy, his lordship had previously (on the 22d June, 1836) been addressed by the committee of the East India and China Association. The following is a part of the address:

"For the purpose of obtaining these objects the association submit to your lordship the expediency of his majesty's government sending a commercial agent or consul to Canton, with municipal and judicial functions to protect the rights and properties of British subjects, and by timely notice or otherwise to prevent, as far as may be practicable, the infraction of the Chinese laws by British subjects, such consul not to have any political authority. At the same time they would recommend that all the former servants of the East India Company should be withdrawn from China, as their presence only tends to distract the Chinese authorities in their understanding of the true relations in which the intercourse with that country is now governed, and any duties which the Company's servants might be called upon to perform should be done by the consul. Upon the best consideration the association have been able to give to the subject, they would not recommend an embassy to be sent to Canton; but as a further measure, they think that an embassy might be tried to Peking, landing at the nearest convenient port; but, as the success of the embassy would very materially depend upon the secrecy with which preparations are made in this country, it is recommended that the arrangement of such mission may not be known by the Canton authorities previously to its arrival in China. It would be important also that the negotiator should not be precluded from performing the ceremonies required at the court of Peking, and that he should be attended by such a force, and with such a retinue, as would give dignity and strength to the mission, and be accompanied by an interpreter, capable of speaking and writing the language fluently, that by possessing the means of communicating readily with the supreme government at Peking, without a chance of being misunderstood in conveying to the court, that the objects sought for are altogether pacific and of a commercial nature. Upon the embassy being received by the Peking government, and when called upon to state its objects, the following demands it is thought should be made. * * *——

These are seven, and are expressed in nearly the same terms as were used by the Glasgow association in a memorial, noticed in our last volume: see page 335. In reply to the address it is stated—

"That his majesty's government are well aware of the great importance of the trade between this country and China; and that they have for that reason cautiously abstained from adopting prematurely, and without the fullest consideration, any measures by which that commerce might incur the hazard of interruption. They concur with the committee in considering the privileges enumerated in the letter of the association of 22d June, 1836, to be such as it would be exceedingly desirable to secure for the interests of British subjects trading to China, but those privileges can be obtained only by a negotiation with the supreme government of China, and his majesty's government are of opinion that it is not at present advisable to send an embassy to Peking with a view to such negotiation." *Canton Press Oct. 28th*, 1837.

We are glad the British government are going to move 'cautiously;' and, we trust, they will be sure they are right before they decree, that *the negotiator shall not be precluded from performing the ceremonies required at the court of Peking.* If those ceremonies are mere tokens of respect, such as is due to a great monarch, let them be performed; but if they are to be considered as marks of divine homage, or of vassalage, or of inferiority on the part of the embassador's sovereign, woe to the man who performs them.

ART. XI. *Estimate of the annual consumption of Indian Opium in China, with a table showing the progressive increase in the number of smokers in eighteen years.*

MUCH has been said, by our correspondents and others, respecting the amount of opium consumed in China, and the number of those who use the drug. With reference to both these topics, the tables on the opposite page contain valuable data; and, in connection with papers already published, will enable those who desire to investigate the subject, to draw tolerably accurate conclusions. The tables, (as far down as 1833,) have been kindly sent to us by one who, though now retired from his business in this country, was for many years extensively engaged in the traffic. On account of the manner in which the government treats the traffickers and smokers of the drug, it is quite impossible for us to gain that minute information, which the importance of the subject seems to require. Some fifty or sixty native traffickers and smugglers, it is said, have been seized within a few months. In the tables, the estimated amount of the drug and the given number of consumers, are too low; besides, the Turkey opium, and the native produce, are not brought into the account. The tables, therefore, must be regarded as only an approximation to the truth. The quantity daily used varies exceedingly in different cases: some consuming only one candareen or less; some three; some ten; some twenty or more. Whether three candareens per day, as assumed in the table, is a fair average, we are not prepared to say.

Estimate of the annual consumption of Indian opium and of the stock remaining on hand at the close of each year, from 1828–29 *to* 1836–37.

Years.	Patna.			Benares.			Malwa.			Total.		Remaining Stock on the 31st of March each year, including Macao.					
	Chests.	Price.	Value.	Chests.	Price.	Value.	Chests.	Price.	Value.	Chests.	Value.	O. P.	N. P.	O. B	N. B	O. M.	N. M.
1828–29	4831	947	4,574,650	1130	911	1,029,585	7,171	966	6,928,880	13,132	12,533,115	428	—	176	—	704	1302
1829–30	5564	866	4,820,448	1579	842	1,329,129	6,857	861	5,907,580	14,000	12,057,157	239	781	65	41	1586	2712
1830–31	5085	876	4,453,984	1575	848	1,335,810	12,100	588	7,110,237	18,760	12,900,031	552	1083	92	261	2117	4060
1831–32	4442	953	4,234,815	1518	954	1,448,195	8,265	704	5,818,574	14,225	11,501,584	1265	921	137	272	2983	5578
1832–33	6410	798	5,115,126	1880	774	1,455,600	15,402	570	8,781,700	23,693	15,352,429	555	1304	202	129	973	3163
1833–34	7893	631	5,023,175	1642	653	1,066,459	11,715	676	7,916,971	21,250	14,006,605	205	685	84	192	961	2127
1834–35	7558	600	4,363,245	2509	582	1,427,604	9,982	599	5,962,930	20,089	11,753,779	217	584	94	135	2658	3691
1835–36	9011	750	6.713,195	2005	702	1,407.510	15.002	599	8,986,198	26,018	17,106,903	271	1211	185	342	1864	3873
1836–37	5280	749	3,957,930	2795	711	1,989.270	13,436	633	8,506.984	21,505	14.454.193	519	2086	318	256	997	4189

Table showing the progressive increase in the number of smokers of Indian opium in China for eighteen years, estimating the consumption of each man at three candareens, equal to $17\frac{4}{100}$ *grains per day.*

Average of three years ending on the 31st of March.	Chests of Patna and Benares.	Weight in catties.	Candareens of pure extract at 50 touch.	Chests of Malwa.	Weight in catties.	Candareens of pure extract at 75 touch.	Total chests consumed.	Total candareens of pure extract.	Number of smokers at 3 candareens or 17.40grs. per day.	Value in Spanish Dollars.
31st of March, 1820,	2850	285,000	228,000,000	1,437	143,700	172,440,000	4,287	400,440,000	365,699	$4.548,900
31st of March, 1823,	2594	259,400	207.520,000	2,479	247,900	297,480,000	5,073	505,000,000	461,187	8,234,773
31st of March, 1826,	3002	300,200	240,160,000	5,450	545,000	654,000,000	8,452	894,160,000	816,584	7,913,310
31st of March, 1829,	4920	492,000	393,600.000	6,160	616,000	739,200,000	11,080	1,132,800,000	1,034,520	10,856,058
31st of March, 1832,	6588	658,800	527,040,000	9,074	907,400	1,088,880,000	15,662	1,615,920,000	1,475,726	12,154,334
31st of March, 1835,	9311	931,100	744,880,000	12,366	1,236,600	1,488,920,000	21,677	2,233,800,000	2,039,998	19.769,111

ART. XII. *Journal of Occurrences. Commercial business; the hoppo's chest; the Hingtae hong; Peking Gazettes; literary and military examinations; new Tartar general; public executions; &c.*

COMMERCIAL business here, for six months past, has been nearly *in statu quo*, very few goods having been bought or sold. Vessels have arrived late, and few in number,—there being only 24 now at Whampoa, and about as many more at Lintin. The period of their departure, it is expected, will also be late. Rice, here the staff of life, is both plentiful and cheap—the foreign article varying from $1.20 to 1.50 per pecul. The trade at Lintin, or at least a considerable number of the vessels in which it was formerly carried on there, have moved northward, there being twelve or fifteen now on the east coast. Consequently 'the coming in of the vile drug,' and 'the oozing out of the precious metal,' through the Tiger's Mouth have greatly diminished.

The hoppo's chest, under all these circumstances, is suffering greatly,—its receipts being less by tens of thousands than they were last year. Even the poor tide-waiters, it is said, cannot get single dollars now, whilst a few months ago tens and hundreds were the monthly income.

The debts of the Hingtae hong, it is now confidently and generally believed, will be paid; but *how* and *when* are questions, important ones, yet to be determined. The sum due to foreigners is something more than two millions of Spanish dollars.

The Peking Gazettes, received during the last month, contain nothing of importance. We observe the illness of the first minister, Changling, who has requested permission to resign. His request is not allowed, but others have been appointed to the acting care of his various duties, and unlimited leave of absence from his duties has been granted. The chief subjects of the Gazettes are, complaints of the venality and carelessness of officers in various parts of the empire, and representations regarding the high price of silver. One memorialist states, that the annual export of silver is, from Kwangtung thirty millions,—from Fuhkeën, Chekeäng, and Keängsoo, ten millions,—and from Teëntsin in Cheihle, twenty millions of taels. There must evidently be an error in the copying of this memorial; and probably three, one, and two, in place of thirty, ten, and twenty, millions, would be the correct reading.

The literary examinations of candidates for the rank of kenjin, or 'promoted men,' commenced on the 7th of September; and during the night of the 6th of this month the names of the seventy-two successful individuals were proclaimed throughout this city. One of these, it has since been discovered, attained his degree by proxy, having engaged a man, whom advanced years and poverty withheld from efforts on his own account, to enter the lists in his name, and write the necessary essays for him, the reward, amounting (it is said) to $1500, being payable only in case of success. Some difference afterwards arose about payment of the money, and several of the other candidates having been offended by the person in whose name success had been obtained, they complained to the lieut.-governor of what had taken place. The lieut.-governor, unwilling to subject himself and his fellow-officers to the punishment to which they will be liable, endeavored to hush up the matter. The scholars, however, pressed attention to it, and a day was appointed for inquiry; when it appeared, that he who had engaged the proxy was unable to write even an ordinary essay. His first degree had been purchased, as is very often done; but the degree of kenjin, unless by the express pleasure of the emperor, is conferred only on talent. The literary examiners left Canton, to return to Peking, on the 23d; and on the same day the governor proceeded, on a tour of military inspection, to the eastern departments of the province. The military examinations of candidates for the second degree began on the 25th.

A newly appointed tseängkeun, or general of the Tartar garrison of Canton, arrived on the 29th. He is comparatively young, short, and without any martial air, or, what supplies its place in China, an austere and rough deportment.

On the 18th, four criminals, three of them newly apprehended, the other an escaped prisoner recaught, being brought before the governor, were tried in his presence and that of the lieut.-governor and all the principal civil authorities, and, being condemned, were immediately taken out and executed.